DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 118 740 95 CE 005 295

TITLE Preparing for Public Service Occupations: Common Core. Curriculum Guide.

INSTITUTION California State Dept. of Education, Sacramento. Div. of Vocational Education.

SPONS AGENCY Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education (DHEW/OE), Washington, D.C. Div. of Research and Demonstration.

PUB DATE Jun 75

GRANT OEG-0-71-4780(357)

NOTE 218p.; For related documents, see CE 005 293-299; Revised Edition of ED 079 547

AVAILABLE FROM Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 (Stock No 017-080-01433-5; No price given)

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.83 HC-$11.37 Plus Postage

DESCRIPTORS *Career Education; Communication Skills; Core Courses; Course Content; *Curriculum Guides; Decision Making Skills; Employment Qualifications; *Entry Workers; Government Employees; Instructional Materials; Interpersonal Competence; Job Application; Job Skills; *Public Service Occupations; Recordkeeping; Resource Guides; Tests; Unit Plan; Vocational Development

ABSTRACT

The guide was developed to assist those involved in implementing career education programs concerned with public service occupations. The basic instructional material recommended for all areas of public service preparation is presented in nine units: (1) oral communications, (2) written communications, (3) basic report writing, (4) basic record keeping, (5) good grooming, (6) relationships with other people, (7) interviewing skills, (8) applying for public service jobs, and (9) techniques of decision making. The guide offers detailed suggestions for course content, a list of resource materials, and instructional objectives for each unit, as well as teacher and student activities helpful in preparing individuals for entry-level positions in public services occupations. A list of resource suppliers and a 21-page set of evaluation questions (designed for duplication) with answer keys for each unit are appended. (Author/MS)

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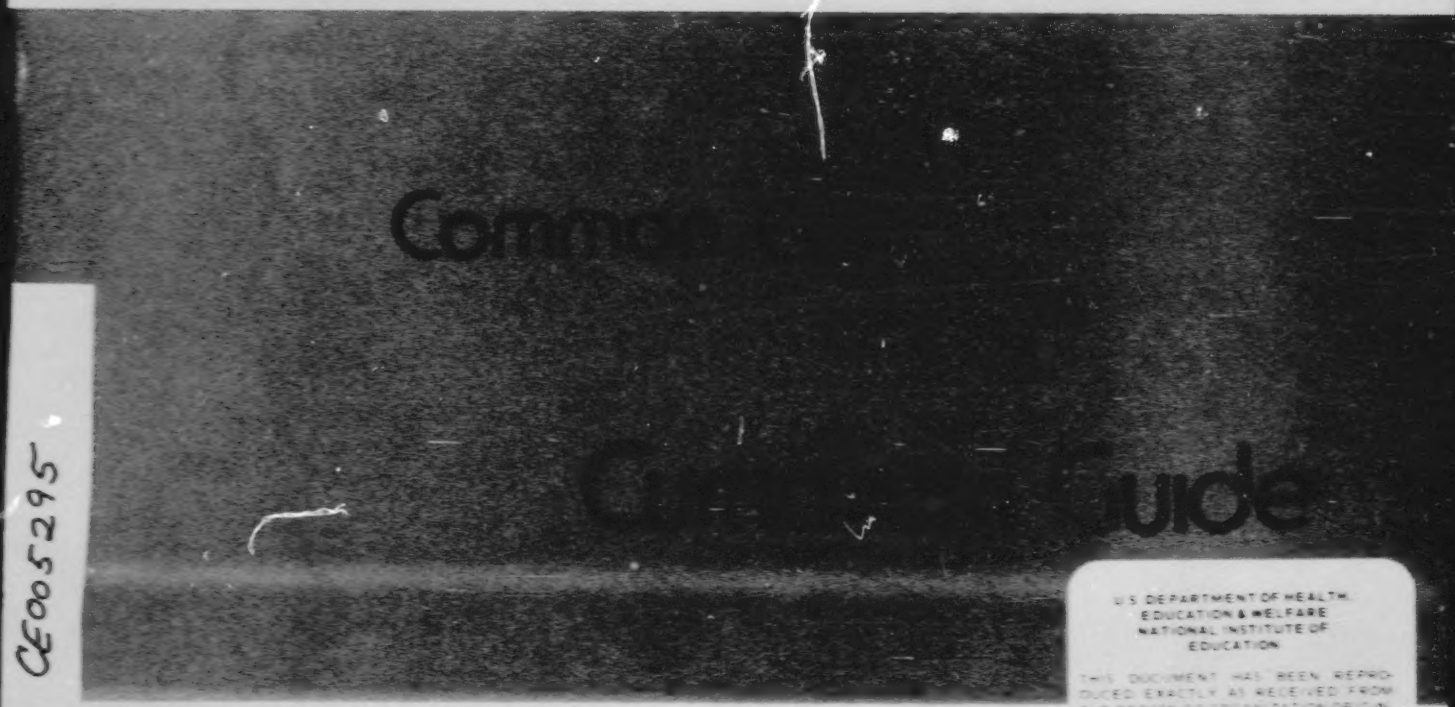
Preparing for Public Service Occupations



CE005295

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Preparing for Public Service Occupations

Common Core

by:

California State Department
of Education
Vocational Education Section
Program Planning Unit
Sacramento, California 95814

in accordance with:

U.S. Office of Education
Bureau of Occupational and
Adult Education
Division of Research and
Demonstration
Curriculum Development Branch
Grant No. OEG-0-71-4780 (357)

June, 1975

This document is one of a series of curriculum guides dealing with the Public Service Occupations career cluster. The titles of all individually available documents in this series appear below:

Exploration of Public Service Occupations
Orientation to Public Service Occupations
Preparing for Public Service Occupations—Common Core
Preparing for Public Service Occupations—Educational Services
Preparing for Public Service Occupations—Law Enforcement Services
Preparing for Public Service Occupations—Social Services
Administering Public Service Occupations—An Implementation Guide

The project presented or reported herein was performed pursuant to a Grant from the U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. However, the opinions expressed herein do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the U.S. Office of Education, and no official endorsement by the U.S. Office of Education should be inferred.

Developed pursuant to grant No. OEG-0-71-4780
by the California State Department of Education
Vocational-Technical Education Curriculum Laboratory
Sacramento, California
Funded by the U.S. Office of Education under
Part I - Curriculum Development in Vocational and Technical Education
Vocational Education Amendments of 1968,
Public Law 90-576
1975

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FOREWORD

This *Common Core Career Education Curriculum Guide* is one of a series developed to assist those involved in implementing career education programs concerned with public service occupations. This Guide consists of nine units and contains the basic instructional material recommended for all areas of public service preparation. It offers suggestions for course content, teaching materials, and instructional objectives, as well as teacher and student activities helpful in preparing individuals for entry-level positions in public service occupations. The subject matter is oriented toward teachers with minimal training and/or experience in public service educational preparation. Units are presented in a sequential order; however, each is designed to stand alone as a separate body of knowledge.

Primary emphasis is on public service occupations preparation; however, other individuals may also want to utilize the information contained in this Guide.

All of the information is "suggested," and should be adapted to meet local conditions and needs.

A wide range of suggestions and approaches to the subject were received and, wherever possible, incorporated into the final document. Since the resulting materials represent many opinions, no approval or endorsement of any institution, organization, agency, or person should be inferred.

This Guide was prepared by the California State Department of Education, Vocational Education Section, Program Planning Unit, which is under the direction of E. David Graf. The major responsibility for the coordination of this guide belongs to James J. Lynn, Curriculum Specialist, Public Service Occupations Curriculum Project.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of this career education guide depended upon the assistance, advice, and cooperation of many individuals. The California State Department of Education, Vocational Education Section, Program Planning Unit, wishes to acknowledge in particular the contribution of the following individuals:

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Unit 1

ORAL COMMUNICATIONS

Here are the contents of the introductory unit to the Common Core group. We suggest a careful reading of it before you read the text.

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Unit 1

ORAL COMMUNICATIONS

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

1. Ability to speak fluently, with correct articulation and pronunciation.
2. Ability to group words into meaningful phrases.
3. Ability to stress words and phrases to enhance communication.
4. Ability to control voice volume and tone according to needs.
5. Ability to use speech forms appropriate for the audience.
6. Ability to use body control and visual aids to enhance communication.
7. Ability to participate effectively in informal conversation and group discussion.
8. Ability to speak effectively and confidently before a group.
9. Ability to persuade or convince listeners.
10. Ability to value the importance of oral communication as an essential skill for working in public service occupations.

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

Oral communication is one of the more basic processes underlying human relationships. The use of speech to transmit ideas, to

probe the ideas of others, to teach, to persuade, to entertain, to motivate, and to otherwise influence and affect others is a uniquely human activity. Speech is used in the most casual and informal of human interactions, as well as in formal settings involving many persons. Through the mass media, the sounds and forms of speech may reach millions of persons simultaneously. Thus the ability to speak effectively in a variety of settings is an essential skill in all activities in which human beings interact with one another.

A basis is provided herein for the development of the student's ability to communicate effectively through speech for a variety of purposes and in a variety of settings, particularly those common to public-service occupational settings. Whatever the particular purpose or setting, however, effective speech will require the speaker to have a clear idea of his purpose and his audience, to organize his thoughts and information in an orderly way, to express himself effectively through his delivery and his knowledge of human relations, to report relevant facts, to explain and summarize clearly, and to evaluate the effectiveness of his communication.

This unit provides a framework for organizing instruction in basic speech skills, while providing practice in speaking for several purposes in several settings.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES

Whatever the particular purpose or setting for oral communication, the speaker can add to his effectiveness by applying certain general principles. In general, these principles can be considered under two broad categories:

- principles affecting delivery, and
- principles affecting human relations.

These two categories are perhaps the most important aspects of oral communication. The principles of delivery and human relations must be applied in a variety of speaking situations.

PRINCIPLES AFFECTING DELIVERY

The delivery of oral communications may be considered under two general categories of:

- *physical delivery*, which includes voice control, articulation, pronunciation, body control, and visual aids, and
- *verbal delivery*, including choice of words and style of delivery.

Physical Delivery

Voice Control. The effectiveness of oral communication depends in large measure upon the physical delivery of speech symbols, one major aspect which is voice control. Voice control has several distinguishing characteristics: pitch, volume, duration, and quality:

- *Pitch* is the characteristic of sound as it relates to the musical scale. Each person's voice has a certain pitch level that may be considered as high, low, or medium. Certain conditions of pitch can cause communication to suffer:

  when the voice is pitched too high,
  when it is pitched too low, and
  when it lacks variety of pitch and is monotonous.

- *Volume,* or loudness, is another characteristic of voice. Speakers may be troubled when the voice volume is

  too great,
  too weak, or
  lacking variety, or monotonous.

- *Duration* refers to the length of time a sound lasts, particularly the vowel sounds. There are two chief problems related to this control:

  overlengthening of vowels, resulting in a drawl,
  eliminating or clipping of vowels, resulting in erratic and staccato speech patterns.

- *Quality of voice* refers to that characteristic which distinguishes one person's voice from another's, the voice's "fingerprint," so to speak. The student should strive to achieve a pleasing and harmonious quality. Common quality faults include

  nasality - (too much nasal resonance),
  denasality - (too little nasal resonance),
  harshness - hoarseness, and breathiness.

Articulation. To make himself understood, the speaker must produce speech in such a way that the audience is able to recognize the individual words he speaks. This is dependent upon the elements of:

- *articulation,* or the joining together of consonants and vowels that go to make up the word, and

- *pronunciation*, or the fitting together of these sounds according to commonly accepted standards.

These concepts are often confused. *Articulation has to do with the clarity or distinctness of utterance*, while *pronunciation has to do with regional or dictionary standards.* It may be said, "We mispronounce words when we don't know how to pronounce them; we misarticulate words when we know how to pronounce them but fail to do so." Through habit, carelessness, and indifference, individuals may acquire such articulation problems as:

- *substitution of one sound for another*, in such words as:

  "dat" for that,
  "git" for get,
  "liddle" for little,
  "winduh" for window,
  "yur" for your.

- *insertion of extra sounds*, as:

  ath-uh-lete for athlete,
  acrosst for across,
  ekscape for escape,
  fil-um for film.

- *omission of certain sounds*, such as:

  at for that,
  em for them,
  pitcher for picture,
  probly for probably,
  slep for slept.

- *misplacement of accent*, for example:

  com-PAIR-a-ble for COM-par-a-ble,
  pre-FER-a-ble for PREF-er-a-ble,
  the-A-ter for THE-a-ter.

Pronunciation. A person may be able to form all the speech sounds in a word accurately without saying the word correctly. The letters of words do not always represent the same sounds. When the person can form the sounds of a word correctly but does not know the acceptable way to form them, he has a pronunciation problem. The way to achieve acceptable pronunciation is to check new words in the dictionary and to be sensitive to the pronunciations heard in the speech of others. If others pronounce a word differently, the word should be looked up at the very next opportunity before using it again. The teacher must play a central role in identifying words misarticulated and mispronounced by students.

Body Language as Communication. In addition to voice and articulation-pronunciation controls, a speaker's whole body acts as an important tool in the physical delivery of speech. Through the judicious use of eye contact, facial expression, and body activity the speaker can supplement and reinforce his spoken communication by means of visual symbols.

Eye Contact. It is important for effective oral communication that the listeners feel that the speaker is speaking directly to them. No matter if the speaker is addressing one person or many, each listener should gain a feeling that the speaker is addressing him. Thus, *eye contact* between the speaker and his audience is essential in virtually every speaking situation. No matter what the setting, therefore, the speaker should make every attempt to meet the eyes of all members of the audience to achieve a feeling of directness and all-inclusiveness. The eyes of the speaker should meet those of members of the audience, not look past them or avoid them, nor over their heads, out of the window, down at the floor, or up at the ceiling. Eye contact with members of the audience will also help the speaker watch for audience reactions, for signs of misunderstanding, doubt, or question which may help him modify his communication in response to audience reactions.

Facial Expression. Another form of body control is the use of *facial expression* to clarify and enliven oral communication. The speaker's face, used effectively, can reflect his interest in his own message, the intensity of his feelings, his sincerity and purposefulness. Hiding behind a mask of blankness and composure can deny the speaker an important tool in the communication of his ideas. To develop this facility with facial expression, the learner should try always to communicate ideas in which he has a high interest and in which he has a sense of competence and concern. It is difficult to generate facial liveliness when speaking on a topic of little personal concern.

Body Activity. The use of gestures and general *body activity* provides another means for supplementing speech. The use of motor activity involving the head, torso, arms, hands, or gross body movement to emphasize the spoken word is a skill which may be cultivated. A shrug of the shoulders, a nod of the head, a straightening of the torso, a lift of the chin, or a step toward the audience can indicate indifference, emphasis, firmness of purpose, a questioning attitude, or determination.

Body activity can, however, be overdone to the point where too much activity may distract from the message. The use of body activity must be judicious if it is to have a controlled and desired effect on the listeners.

Another fault in this area involves the unconscious use of distracting mannerisms which may result from habit, nervousness,

or preoccupation. Such mannerisms usually are unrelated to the content of the message, such as shifting weight from foot to foot, finger or foot tapping, nose or head fiddling, generalized arm waving, lint picking, and the like. The student should learn to normally use body movement only for specific purposes, while trying to eliminate all mannerisms and overuses which distract from the message.

Visual Aids Help Oral Communication. The physical delivery of speech may be enhanced also through the use of visual aids. Visual aids may be useful for several purposes:

- *for getting attention and interest*. Well-chosen and relevant aids command attention through their shape, color, texture, or movement. A speaker can capture attention by using materials which appeal directly to the senses.

- *for clarifying*. When words are insufficient to communicate an idea, a visual aid may help make an idea clearer. A sketch or drawing, a photograph or model, often can clarify in an instant what may be impossible to describe verbally.

- *for impressing on memory*. Aside from getting attention and clarifying an idea, the speaker may wish to affect the listener's memory. A well-chosen visual aid may help etch an idea on the memory far more effectively than a well-turned phrase.

- *for increasing poise*. The use of visual aids may provide a framework for the speaker's activity, giving him something to do which may serve to increase confidence. The use of visual aids as a "crutch" should not be encouraged in the long run; however, their use in this way may serve to aid the self-confidence of the learner in the initial stages of speech training.

Many types of visual aids may be found useful to supplement oral communications. These include charts, graphs, maps, globes, chalkboard sketches, flip charts, models, moving pictures, projected slides and illustrations, photographs, or television enlargements. In using visual aids, the speaker should follow several basic guidelines:

- He should use the visual material purposefully.
- He should be certain that the entire audience can see the aid.
- He should maintain eye contact while using the aid.
- He should avoid dividing attention with the aid when it is not in use.

Verbal Delivery

The effectiveness of oral communication depends also upon the speaker's choice of language and his style of delivery. The words he uses, the phrasing by which he assembles them, and the manner in which he delivers them, are the elements of *verbal delivery*.

Choice of Language. Good language in oral communication is language adapted to the audience and to the occasion. In choosing language, the speaker must consider himself, the ideas he wants to express, the characteristics of the audience, and the nature of the setting. Thus he must ask himself, "Is this expression suitable for me to use in communicating this thought to this audience on this occasion?"

Use clear language. To accomplish this, the speaker should use language which clarifies his thoughts. Language should be simple and not pompous. Unnecessarily complex expressions or technical terms should be avoided. Too many words, too ornate words, too pretentious words, can hamper communication. The criteria of clarity in speaking are directness, economy, and aptness. For example,

Instead of	Say
prevarication	lie
domicile	home
this moment is one of great joy to my heart	I'm glad to be here

Seek precise words. It is also a good idea to use precise language. Words and expressions which are specific to the intended meaning are more likely to communicate that meaning than more general and abstract words. In this vein,

Instead of	Try
car	hardtop, sedan, Ford, or 1973, hatch-back Pinto
said	replied, stated, cried, commented, uttered

Avoid imprecise wording. Avoid roundabout expressions, or *euphemisms*, which create special problems in lack of precision. "Soft-pedaling" an idea now and then may be justified if the speaker does not sacrifice his overall credibility. But care must be taken that the use of euphemisms does not act to call into question the speaker's ideas or intent. Therefore,

Instead of	Try
he passed to his just reward	he died
he received his termination notice	he was fired
the effects were not inconsiderable	the effects were great

Use appealing language. The speaker should also seek to use language which will enliven his thoughts. One way to achieve this is to use language that appeals to the senses. Thus language that appeals to movement, color, light, texture, form, taste, smell, sound, and the like will tend to put life in the speaking. Thus,

Instead of	Try
a difficult peace	a hard and bitter peace
an old ship	a splintery, creaking old ship

Animate abstract ideas. Figurative language, too, can enliven speech by animating an abstract idea. The use of simile, metaphor, personification, and irony (look up the meanings in your dictionary) are especially useful. For example,

Instead of	Try
her arrival silenced everyone	her arrival was like a chill winter wind
he paced to and fro	he was like a caged lion
the winds rustled the trees	the trees whispered in the winds
we worked a lot of overtime	oh, we twiddled away our time and often left early!

Use varied techniques. The speaker should develop ways to vary his choice of language. Variety in expression can help to sustain interest and attention, while often clarifying meaning. Students should practice changing their language by use of techniques such as:

- varying the shaping of sentences (use of questions, use of imperatives, varying order of phrases, etc.).
- building climax within passages.
- using parallelisms (recurring similarities of phrase or word arrangements).
- using alliteration (repeating first syllables, or consonants in consecutive words).

- using repetition of phraseology.
- using fresh language; i.e., avoiding the ordinary and the hackneyed, or shopworn, cliche-type phrases.

Use appropriate language. The speaker should always take especial pains to use language appropriate to the occasion, and language which is standard. The speaker can be too formal or too informal, either of which will reduce, for particular occasions, the effectiveness of his communication. While the formality of language may be adjusted to the occasion, rarely will it be appropriate to use common slang or the language of the streets in any formal communication setting. Similarly, the use of standard speech will usually be appropriate and aid in communicating ideas, whereas the use of substandard language forms may inhibit understanding and reduce the speaker's credibility among many segments of his audience.

Use natural language. Further, *it is important on all occasions that the speaker use language that is his own, language which is familiar and comfortable.* Each student should work toward developing broader vocabulary and a greater variety of language skills, but should be discouraged from trying to achieve these in large steps. Language skills are developed over long periods of time, and at any given stage of development the student should use the language with which he is most comfortable and natural. In this way each student, over time, may develop uniqueness and effectiveness of style - that characteristic of one's speech which brands it distinctly as his own.

Develop a Good Style of Delivery. Finally, *control of delivery rate, rhythm,* and *phrasing* will be essential to achieving clarity and effectiveness in oral communication. *Rate* may be controlled by the number and duration of the silent spaces between words and phrases, as well as by the time taken in the production of individual sounds, particularly the vowel sounds. Faster rates may be called for at times; at other times, slower rates. Variations in rate can affect the clarity of communication as well as the mood. A slow and ponderous rate may create a mood of solemnity; a rapid rate, one of lightness and joyfulness. One should vary his rate within speech to achieve variety as he varies other aspects of verbal delivery.

These variations, together with the individual's use of pauses and techniques of sound production act to generate a *rhythm of speech* which is part of the individual's style. Care should be taken that the use of pauses aids rather than hinders meaning - that pauses occur in appropriate places.

Also, especial care should be taken that irrelevant sounds, such as "ah," "uh," and "um" do not creep into the individual's

speech to fill up the spaces and to break up the flow of ideas. The rate and rhythm of speaking should compare favorably to a musical composition in which the breaks, accelerations, slowdowns, and repetitions add interest and clarity to the composer's purpose.

PRINCIPLES AFFECTING HUMAN RELATIONS

In addition to those principles of oral communication which affect delivery, a number of principles of oral communication affect the relationship between the speaker and his audience. It should be self-evident that a listener will be more receptive to a speaker's ideas if a positive relationship exists between them. The speaker can apply certain principles which will tend to create and to maintain this type of positive relationship.

Respect the Dignity of Others

Every human being desires self-respect, a sense of personal worth, and dignity. In dealing with others it is basic to honestly nourish this desire. If we do or say anything which will injure another's dignity, if we humiliate or demean him in any way, we create resentment and antagonism which can obstruct effective communication. To implement this principle, try the following techniques in both formal and informal communications:

- *Make the other person right in something.* Even though you may disagree with him, start your search for agreement by pinpointing something in which he is right and go on from there.

- *Avoid complaining or finding fault.* The complainer and the fault-finder destroy all reasonable relations with others. Follow the maxim, "Fix the error, not the blame." Protect the dignity of others by showing your respect for them personally, even while you may disagree with their ideas or criticize their work.

- *Avoid arguments.* Arguing with another implies that he is ignorant or mistaken and thereby diminishes his dignity. Antagonism can easily form around argument and obstruct effective communication. By being modest in advancing ideas and by avoiding telling others they are wrong, a speaker can reduce the possibility of damaging arguments. Rather than saying, "It is obvious that....," or "Any right-thinking person can see that....," try saying, "It appears to me that....," or "Let us consider the possibility that...."

- *Admit personal mistakes*. If one is willing to admit that he is human enough to make an error, others find their own self-image taking on increased stature.

Develop An Honest Interest in Other People

This second principle challenges us to develop an attitude of curiosity about others and to pursue this curiosity rather than to tell others about ourselves. Rather than a "Here I am" attitude, develop a "There you are" attitude. Such an attitude creates respect in others, and enables one to know those with whom he deals, to understand them, and to treat them as individuals. To cultivate an attitude of interest in others, try the following techniques:

- *Be an interested listener*. One cannot possibly respect another's point of view unless he hears it out.
- *Smile honestly and often*. A person need not agree with, approve of, or like another's point of view; understanding, recognition, and interest are sufficient to stimulate an honest smile which will reflect one's appreciation and respect for the other's point of view.
- *Ask questions frequently to understand others*. Questions are valuable because they require people to take specific actions in the direction of others. A good question reveals that one has really been listening and further, that he has an interest in what was said. And it gives another an opportunity to further reveal himself, thus providing a mechanism for getting better acquainted.

Recognize Individual Uniqueness and Worth

This third principle asks us to see people as individuals, to respond positively to their better qualities, and to understand their weaknesses. To develop ability in this area, try such methods as:

- *Get names right and use them often*. Every person has a name which designates his uniqueness. One's use of it reveals recognition of his uniqueness. Using names correctly and frequently not only satisfies the natural desire of another for recognition, but aids a person to identify another as an individual.
- *Be appreciative and quick to give approval*. Being ready and generous with appreciation builds good human relations in two ways. It nourishes the receiver's feeling of self-esteem and worth. And it trains the giver to be observant of the strong or desirable traits and behavior of others.

- *Assume that people will behave in a good manner.* If we ascribe the best of motives and intentions to others, they will be inclined to live up to them. Assume the best of every person and you will rarely be disappointed. Assuming the best of them gives implied recognition to their worth as individuals.

- *Respect the rights and opinions of others.* A person need not always agree with the opinions of others, but he must respect the right of others to hold opinions different from his own and refrain from belittling or contradicting them. The opinions of others are very much a part of their psychological and intellectual makeup, and to refuse respect for an opinion is to deny respect to the person himself. *Effective communication cannot occur between persons without mutual respect for their rights and opinions.*

Cooperate With the Wants of Others

This fourth principle emphasizes that behavior is directed from within a person as he attempts to satisfy his own wants or to solve his own problems. If a person seeks to communicate with others and to direct their behavior in a particular direction, he must cooperate with the wants which motivate them. That is, he must align his purposes with their wants and avoid the appearance of denying or frustrating those wants. Nevertheless, there is a difference between cooperating with the wants of others and giving in to them. Cooperation simply implies that one should present his case in a way which will reveal how the listener will benefit. Some techniques for implementing this principle follow:

- *Encourage initiative.* Great energy can be released by encouraging and tactfully guiding the initiative of others. Challenging the creative imagination of others - in proposing solutions to problems, in developing plans, in organizing for action, and the like - reveals the speaker's respect for the ideas of others, and can go a long way to assure their cooperation and participation in the final activity. When one's own initiative and imagination has been challenged, he is more likely to align himself with the decisions which are finally reached.

- *Help the other person get what he wants.* When another sees a person willing to help him satisfy his wants, an atmosphere conducive to effective communication and cooperation has been established. Try to recognize what others want and address the issues from their point of view.

- *Present problems and ask for solutions.* When one must ask another for help, when he must assign work, or when he wants to enlist cooperation, then he will often find it more productive to present the problem and ask for help in its

solution than to make a direct demand. Instead of saying, "George, move those boxes out of the aisle," try saying, "George, these boxes are dangerous where they are; someone may injure himself. Is there some other handy place for them where they will be out of the way?" By involving George in solving the problem you show respect for his ideas, and he will more likely WANT to help solve the problem.

- *Present doubts, opinions, or objections in question form.* Sometimes we must necessarily disagree with another. When it is necessary, we can make our disagreement more objective and more acceptable to others if we avoid over positive or challenging statements. One technique for achieving this is to voice our concerns in the form of questions, which may minimize the possibility of arousing resentment or starting an argument.

  By asking questions, one establishes the basis that the other fellow may, after all, be right and thereby shows respect for his ideas. Instead of saying, "George, I don't agree with you that the service counter should be placed just inside the entry door," one should try asking, "George, if we did put the service counter just inside the entry door, wouldn't it cause waiting customers to block the entrance?" In this form the objection does not challenge George's ideas, nor put him on the defensive, since George is being asked to contribute his further ideas on the matter.

  If people can adopt the method of offering opinions, doubts, and objections in the form of questions, then a cooperative attitude can be encouraged in others instead of a hostile one.

One who cultivates skill in the systematic application of the foregoing principles of human relations in his oral communications will find his listeners more receptive to his ideas.

PERSON-TO-PERSON COMMUNICATIONS

Not only in the public-service occupations, but in business, industry, and everyday life, the form of communication most often used is *person-to-person speaking*. Any human activity which requires the interaction of two or more persons will rely heavily upon person-to-person speaking to establish and maintain social relationships, to plan, to coordinate, and to carry out cooperative tasks. *Effectiveness in person-to-person communication is essential for effectiveness in most jobs.* The forms of person-to-person communications most commonly used in public-service occupations and discussed herein are informal conversation, interviewing, and group discussions.

Informal Conversation. The major difference between conversation and public speaking is that in conversation there is give-and-take, while in public speaking the speaker does all the talking. Yet even this difference may be more apparent than actual, for in real life conversants may hold the floor for long periods of time, and public speakers may be seeking two-way communication with their audiences.

There are few firm rules of conversation which will hold true in all situations because conversational situations may vary so widely. Not only do topics vary, but the makeup of the conversants in age, occupation, interest, education may also vary. So may the time, place, and purpose of the gathering. So many situations are possible that the conversationalist who tries to meet them all in the same manner is doomed to failure. *The good conversationalist will try to develop a wise adaptability.* Some guidelines which may prove helpful are these:

- Pursue only those subjects of interest to all the conversants.
- Avoid saying about another what you might resent being said about yourself.
- Avoid statements which you would be embarrassed to have repeated with your name cited as the source.
- Maintain a conversational tone: good-humored, alert, and vigorous, without being rancorous.
- Express opinions, but avoid being opinionated; contend without being contentious.
- In general, adhere to the principles of good human relations discussed in the previous section.

Interviewing. Most persons, at one time or another, have been interviewed. Public-service employees, at one time or another, may be expected to conduct interviews. While interviews have many characteristics in common with conversation, there are important differences. An interview is a planned conversation - it is arranged in advance by the parties and is intended to accomplish some purpose. Interviews may be *structured* (directive) or *unstructured* (nondirective) in form. The former is likely to be task- or subject-centered and is most common in work situations. The latter are likely to be person-centered and are used for counseling, analysis, and therapy. Thus, they usually require that the interviewer have substantial professional training. There are many kinds of, and purposes for, interviews. For example:

- *Employment interviews:* for securing, developing, and training employees.

- *Induction interviews:* for orienting new employees.
- *Performance review interviews:* for training, and developing employees.
- *Counseling interviews:* for personal and personnel matters.
- *Correction interviews:* for disciplining and guidance of staff.
- *Grievance interviews:* reverse correction interviews.
- *Data gathering interviews:* to obtain special information.
- *Consulting interviews:* exchange of information and problem solving with an expert.
- *Sales interviews:* for persuading another.
- *Order-giving interviews:* to assign tasks and procedures.
- *Exit interviews:* a debriefing of an employee upon separation.

From the above it can be seen that interviews are directed toward serving three basic goals:

- to increase understanding through information-giving and information-getting,
- to persuade, and
- to solve problems.

To be effective, interviews should be carefully planned. Objectives should be determined in advance, and thought should be given to major obstacles likely to arise. The strategy and tactics of the interview should be planned beforehand, and consideration should be given to some contingency plans in the event that certain events occur during the interview.

The beginning of the interview should establish a workable arrangement between the parties by establishing an appropriate atmosphere, stimulating interest and attention, and presenting the problem or goal of the interview.

The body of the interview should pursue the above objectives.

The close of the interview should round out and gracefully terminate the interview. The gist of the interview should be reviewed or summarized; the bases for further conversations should be established if necessary; and appreciations should be expressed.

Group Discussions. The term group discussion describes an activity that enables a number of cooperative people to talk freely about a problem under the leadership of a member of the

group. They have the common purpose of interchanging ideas for specific needs. Group discussion is sometimes confused with debate, but the two activities differ in purpose, in format, and in the attitude of the participants. *The purpose of debate is advocacy; the purpose of discussion is inquiry.*

In group discussion, the participants deliberate seriously with minimum restraints. They work in cooperation with one another in discussion at least until the group as a unit has reached a solution to a problem. Their purpose is to inquire in order to learn all aspects of a problem, and then to solve it. Although participants may disagree, their purpose is to sort out the areas of agreement in arriving at answers.

Techniques of Group Discussion. The techniques and formats of group discussion may vary, but the underlying purpose remains the same - to inquire into the essential aspects of a problem and to solve it. Some types of discussions, such as the *meeting*, or *round-table*, are not intended for audiences; others, such as the *panel*, the *symposium*, and the *forum*, are planned for audiences. Whatever the format, the participants should remember that they are acting as a group studying a question. It requires real skill on the part of all participants to pool relevant information, to move the discussion forward, to limit heated cross-talk, and to stress areas of agreements.

Criteria for group discussion. Group discussion is useful only if the group has a real problem to solve and if its members all agree on what that problem is. Thus, stating the question in an effective way is important to promote fruitful discussion. Here are some criteria for worthwhile discussions:

- The problem should deserve a solution.
- The problem should be worth the time spent on it.
- The problem should be either timely or timeless.
- The problem should be able to be solved in the time available.
- The group should be competent to solve the problem.
- The problem should be stated in question form.
- The question for discussion should not be stated in a form demanding a "yes" or "no" answer, but in a form indicating a need for discussion. (Instead of: "Should the federal government control the press?" try: "What should be the role of the federal government in regulating the press?"

Leading a discussion requires some special skills. The discussion leader must insure the orderly, systematic, and cooperative consideration of the question. He tries to direct the course of the discussion without manipulating the group to

accept any particular conclusion. He assures that every member of the group has an opportunity to participate, and that no one monopolizes the floor. He provides needed facts or calls upon others to provide them. He summarizes when needed and restates the issues under discussion. He strives to keep the emphasis upon agreement and cooperative thinking in order to avoid conflict.

A simple functional plan for discussion leadership might include the following steps for a problem-solving discussion:

- Introduction of the problem by the leader.
- Defining potentially confusing terms.
- Presentation of relevant facts by group members.
- Specifying criteria for judging a good solution.
- Presentation by members of possible solutions.
- Analysis of solutions in relation to criteria.
- Decision: which solution is preferred, or what additional information is needed before a decision can be made.

Forms of group discussion. Several forms of group discussion are in common use. Each occasion for group discussion implies its own format for discussion which will best serve its own specific needs, purposes, and interests.

The common formats include:

- The *round table* (or informal) group discussion is usually not observed by an audience. The preferred number of participants is from four to seven, although good discussions may be held with as many as fifteen or as few as three participants. The discussants should cooperate courteously in reaching a decision. Formal recognition to speak is not necessary. The outstanding characteristic of the round-table discussion is its informality.
- The *panel* is similar except for the presence of an audience. With an audience, the members are more formal in their presentations, speaking not only for themselves, but for the audience as well. If the audience participates by asking questions after the solution has been reached, the activity is called a *panel forum*.
- A *symposium* differs from the panel or round-table because all participants, perhaps three or four, are experts on phases of the question. The speakers give set speeches in order and are provided little opportunity for interchanging ideas with their fellow participants. The symposium is typically presented for the benefit of an audience. Often a panel follows a symposium, offering the participants an

opportunity, after their individual presentations, to exchange ideas in a discussion format. When the audience is invited to ask questions of the participants, the activity is called a *symposium-forum*.

- The *forum* is an activity distinguished by audience participation. The forum may be used in combination with a panel, a symposium, a lecture, a debate, or any other form which may be useful to communicate basic information to the audience prior to its participation. The leader, in conducting a forum, should explain the procedures to be followed by members of the audience in asking questions or making comments, including how to be recognized, how much time will be allowed, and the like.

Group discussion is an excellent means of pooling knowledge, reaching decisions, and informing the public. The public-service employee will find himself participating in group discussion both within his organization, at staff meetings and other groups, and for audiences as a means of informing public opinion.

SPEAKING BEFORE GROUPS

The distinction between speaking IN a group and speaking BEFORE a group is not always apparent. If, as a member of a group, one speaks his piece for five full minutes without interruption, or if he rises and speaks from a standing position, is he speaking in the group or before it? While it is a popular notion that group speaking, or public speaking is characterized by a much higher degree of formality, and by one-way communication from the speaker to his audience, it is well to consider speaking before a group as simply dignified, amplified conversation. *Public speaking, at its best, seeks to establish a carefully planned conversational relationship with a group of persons.*

The public-service employee will find many occasions in which he will be called upon to speak before a group. The group may be his co-workers, as at a staff or committee meeting; his colleagues, as at a professional conference; or members of the public, as at a public meeting, or a meeting of a citizens' group. Whatever the particular occasion, the employee may be called upon to speak before a group for any of several purposes. The general principles of effective oral communication apply to public or group speaking, as well as to person-to-person speaking, and attention to these principles will aid in developing effectiveness in speaking before groups. Public-service employees commonly participate in speaking before groups for the purposes of informing, instructing, persuading, motivating, or entertaining.

Speaking to Inform

The primary purpose of the speech to inform is to convey information to listeners to clarify a point of view, a process, a method, an idea, a problem, or a proposed solution. By far the greater amount of speaking before a group is done to convey information. The content may vary from relatively simple, concrete topics, such as how to complete a personnel form, to highly abstract topics, such as how a client-centered program will affect relations with clients.

Three general types of informing speeches are commonly used in public-service work:

- reports,
- briefings,
- informational talks.

An *oral report* summarizes in orderly fashion a body of information, usually assembled by the person making the report.

A *briefing* is similar to a report, except that it usually occurs as a prelude to some imminent action. All the facts needed for decision-making actions are assembled immediately before the action, and conveyed to those who will be making the decisions.

The *informational talk* is less formal, usually delivered by a knowledgeable person without need for much formal preparation. An informational talk might be presented by the head of an agency about the agency's work to a group of new employees. A simple and typical four-part outline for information speeches consists of the following parts:

- *Introduction:* Tell them what you are going to tell them.
- *Key Idea:* Tell them the main or central idea.
- *Body:* Tell them the details.
- *Conclusion:* Tell them what you told them.

Speaking to Instruct

Almost every employee in a public agency at one time or another will be expected to teach or train others. This teaching will often occur in a group situation, and the employee will function as a teacher, speaking to the group, assigning practice, evaluating student work, and similar activities. Speaking for this purpose should generally follow the rules of good human relations, of course, but additionally should use certain principles of learning which will increase the effectiveness of teaching.

When speaking to instruct or train a group, the instructor should employ the following principles:

- *Include an advance organizer:* A summary of the tasks which will be learned, and a reason for learning them.
- *Provide active practice:* Give the learners, or listeners, plenty of opportunity to practice what you want them to learn. Ask a lot of questions; hand out worksheets; break the group into "buzz" groups for discussion; get them actively involved.
- *Help them succeed:* Don't assign them work or ask them questions which they are likely to fail. Give them hints if necessary during practice, but help them succeed.
- *Give them plenty of feedback:* If they answer a question correctly, or turn in a correct worksheet, or make a correct contribution in some other way, let them know it right away. Not tomorrow, or next week, but let them know immediately.

If these principles can be incorporated into instructional talks and training sessions, they are likely to be more effective.

Speaking to Persuade

The public-service employee may find himself speaking to persuade a group from time to time. In ordinary work situations, he may wish to persuade his fellow workers to adopt a new policy, or a certain attitude toward their work. On other occasions, he may be speaking to members of the public, trying to persuade them favorably toward his agency, or to avail themselves of the agency's program.

Basically, there are three types of appeals which the speaker can make to his audience:

- *Logical appeals:* Through the use of deductive reasoning (from general ideas to specific conclusion) and inductive reasoning (from specific data to a general conclusion), and the presenting of factual evidence to support this reasoning, the speaker appeals mainly to the listener's intellect and reason.
- *Psychological appeals:* Through appeals to the listener's motivations, feelings, and values, the speaker tries to get his listeners to WANT to adopt the idea being presented.
- *Personal appeals:* Through his own personal effect, the speaker tries to influence his listeners - by characterizing his own reputation, appearance, personality, and character in a way which will create a favorable and receptive climate for his ideas.

Beyond these types of appeals, the persuasive speaker will do well to attend carefully to the principles of good human relations discussed earlier.

Speaking to Motivate

Another occasion for speaking before a group is to motivate them - to excite, arouse, or spur them on. Usually such speaking is occasioned by some strong feelings in the speaker about his subject. He may, for example, feel that the staff of the agency is simply not attaching sufficient importance to certain areas of their work. At a staff meeting he might address the group and try to get them "fired up" about that work.

Speaking of this type generally follows the patterns of the persuasive speech, since we often are seeking to influence the listeners in a particular direction. Typically, however, its appeal tends to focus upon the psychological, since the speaker is usually more interested in affecting attitudes, motivations, and values than he is in affecting beliefs.

Speaking to Entertain

While not normally central to the duties of public-service employees, the entertaining speech is an occasional responsibility which may fall to almost anyone. At an annual dinner, a staff party, an agency picnic, one may be called upon to speak briefly to a group in a light and casual tone. When called upon on such an occasion, one should be especially aware that he need not be uproariously funny to be entertaining. *To entertain means simply to amuse or to divert.*

It is well to recognize that few persons have the practiced skills of a professional comedian to keep an audience laughing from start to finish. The occasional speaker who seeks to entertain an audience, to amuse and divert them for a few brief moments, does well to adapt his humor to the local and familiar experiences of his audience.

In general, the entertaining speech should attend to the principles of good human relations. The speaker should not develop humor at the expense of any person's dignity. While he may poke gentle fun at himself, rarely can one poke fun at others without injuring their dignity and self-esteem. As with other purposeful speeches, speeches to entertain may be organized around the four-part outline discussed earlier:

- Introduction,
- Key idea,
- Body, and
- Conclusion.

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

- Prepare a list of principles affecting delivery, and a list of principles affecting human relations. Develop checklists for evaluating the speech of others based upon these principles.
- Participate in informal conversation with two others before the class. No topic should be decided in advance. Following the conversation, participate in a class critique of the conversation.
- Participate in two interview situations set up by your teacher. In one, function as the interviewer; in the other, as the interviewee.
- Participate in a round table discussion on a problem assigned by your teacher.
- Participate in a panel-forum on a problem assigned by your teacher.
- Participate as a member of a symposium-forum on a problem assigned by your teacher.
- Prepare and present a 5-minute oral report on a topic assigned by your teacher.
- Prepare and present a 5-minute lesson on a subject assigned by your teacher.
- Prepare and present a 5-minute persuasive or motivational speech on a subject assigned by your teacher.
- Prepare and present a 5-minute speech to entertain the class.
- Participate in critiques of the speeches and discussions involving other students. Use principles of delivery and human relations as the basis for your criticism.

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

- Have each student develop checklists for critiquing oral communications based upon the principles of delivery and human relations discussed in the first topic. Through class discussion, develop a checklist evaluation form which will be used by the class for evaluating speech performance.
- Have students in groups of three participate in informal conversations. Topics should not be decided in advance. The setting should be informal as possible. But the conversation should be observed and evaluated by members of the class. "Buzz" groups may be formed, with teams of "evaluators" "dropping in" to the groups.
- Assign interview situations to pairs of students, designating the interviews and the interviewees. Students should be given ten or fifteen minutes to prepare for their part of the interview. Interviews should be critiqued by the class.

- Assign students to round table panel, and symposium groups. Assign each a problem to discuss. Have each group discuss its problem before the class. Critique the discussions.
- Have each student prepare a five-minute report, a five-minute lesson on some subject, a five-minute persuasive speech, a five-minute entertainment speech, on topics you approve. Presentations should be evaluated by the class using the critique forms developed by the class.

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Unit 2

WRITTEN COMMUNICATIONS

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Unit 2

WRITTEN COMMUNICATIONS

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

1. Ability to write legibly.
2. Ability to fill out forms and applications correctly.
3. Ability to take messages and notes accurately.
4. Ability to write letters effectively.
5. Ability to write directions and instructions clearly.
6. Ability to outline written and spoken information.
7. Ability to persuade or teach others through written communication.
8. Ability to write effective overviews and summaries.
9. Ability to make smooth transitions within written communications.
10. Ability to use language forms appropriate for the reader.
11. Ability to prepare effective informational reports.

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

Public-service employees are required to prepare written communications for a variety of purposes. Written communication is a fundamental tool, not only for the public-service occupations, but throughout the world of work. Many public-service occupations require written communication with ordinary citizens of diverse backgrounds, so the trainee should develop the ability to write in simple, nontechnical language that the ordinary citizen will understand.

This unit is designed to develop the student's ability to communicate effectively in writing for a number of different purposes and in a number of different formats. Whatever the particular purpose or format, however, effective writing will require the writer:

- to have a clear idea of his purpose and his audience;
- to organize his thoughts and information in an orderly way;
- to express himself concisely, accurately, and concretely;
- to report relevant facts;
- to explain and summarize ideas clearly; and
- to evaluate the effectiveness of his communication.

BUSINESS WRITING

Several forms of written communication tend to recur frequently in most public-service agencies, including:

- letters
- forms
- memoranda
- minutes of meetings
- short reports
- telegrams and cables
- news releases
- and many others

The public-service employee should be familiar with the principles of writing in these forms, and should be able to apply them in preparing effective communications.

Letters

Every letter sent from a public-service agency should be considered an ambassador of goodwill. The impression it creates may mean the difference between favorable public attitudes or unfavorable ones. It may mean the difference between creating a friend or an enemy for the agency. Every public-service employee has a responsibility to serve the public effectively and to provide services in an efficient and courteous manner. The letters an agency sends out reflect its attitudes toward the public.

The impression a letter creates depends upon both its appearance and its tone. A letter which shows erasures and pen written corrections gives an impression that the sending agency is slovenly. Similarly, a rude or impersonal letter creates the impression that the agency is insensitive or unfeeling. In preparing letters, the employee should apply principles of

style and tone which will serve to create the most favorable impression.

Select the Letter Type. The two most common types of business letters are letters of inquiry and letters of response - that is, "asking" letters and "answering" letters. Whichever type of letter the employee is asked to write, the following guidelines will simplify the task and help to achieve a style and tone which will create a favorable impression on the reader.

Select the Right Format. Several styles of letter format are in common use today, including:

- the indented format,
- the block format, and
- the semi-block format.

Modified forms of these are also in use in some offices. The student should become familiar with the formats preferred for usage in his office, and be able to use whichever form the employer requests.

Know the Letter Elements. Every letter includes certain basic elements, such as:

- the letterhead, which identifies the name and address of the sender.
- the date on which the letter was transmitted.
- the inside address, with the name, street, city, and state of the addressee.
- the salutation, greeting the addressee.
- the body, containing the message.
- the complimentary close, the "good-bye" of the business letter.
- the signature, handwritten by the sender.
- the typed signature, the typewritten name and title of the sender.

In addition, several other elements are occasionally found in business letters:

- the *attention line*, directing the letter to the attention of a particular individual or his representative.
- the *subject line*, informing the reader at a glance of the subject of the letter.

- the *enclosure notation*, noting items enclosed with the letter.
- the *carbon-copy notation*, listing other persons who receive copies of the letter.
- the *postscript*, an afterthought sometimes (but not normally) added following the last typed line of the letter.

Be Brief. Use only the words which help to say what is needed in a clear and straightforward manner. Do not repeat information already known to the reader, or contained elsewhere in the letter. Likewise, do not repeat information contained in the letter being answered. Rather than repeat the content of a previous letter, one can say something like, "Please refer to our letter dated March 5."

An employee can shorten his letters by using single words that serve the same function as longer phrases. Many commonly used phrases can be replaced by single words. For example,

Phrase	Single word
in order to	to
in reference to	about
in the amount of	for, of
in a number of cases	some
in view of	because
with regard to	about, in

Similarly, avoid the use of adjectives and nouns that are formed from verbs. If the root verbs are used instead, the writing will be more concise and more vivid. For example,

Noun form	Verb form
We made an adjustment on our books	We adjusted our books
We are sorry we cannot make a replacement o	We are sorry we cannot replace
Please make a correction in our order	Please correct our order

Be on the lookout for unnecessary adjectives and adverbs which tend to clutter letters without adding information or improving style. Such unnecessary words tend to distract the reader and make it more difficult for him to grasp the main points. Observe how the superfluous words, italicized in the following

example, obscure the meaning: "You may be *very much* disappointed to learn that the *excessively large* demand for our *highly popular recent* publication, 'Your Income Taxes,' has led to an *unexpected* shortage of this *attractive* publication and we *sadly* expect they will not be replenished until *quite* late this year."

Summarizing, then, *a good letter is simple and clear, with short, simple words, sentences, and paragraphs. Related parts of sentences and paragraphs are kept together and placed in an order which makes it easy for the reader to follow the main thoughts.*

Be Natural. Whenever possible, use a human touch. Use names and personal pronouns to let the reader know the letter was written by a person, not an institution. Instead of saying, "It is the policy of this agency to contact its clients once each year to confirm their status," try this: "Our policy, Mr. Jones, is to confirm your status once each year."

Use Concrete Nouns. Avoid using abstract words and generalizations. Use names of objects, places, and persons rather than abstractions.

Use Active Verbs. The passive voice gives a motionless, weak tone to most writing. Instead of "The minutes were taken by Mrs. Smith," say, "Mrs. Smith took the minutes." Instead of "The plans were prepared by the banquet committee," say, "The banquet committee prepared the plans."

Use a Natural Tone. Many people tend to become hard, cold, and unnatural the moment they write a letter. *Communicating by letter should have the same natural tone of conversation used in everyday speech.* One way to achieve a natural and personal tone in the majority of letters is through the use of personal pronouns. Instead of saying, "Referring to your letter of March 5, reporting the non-receipt of goods ordered last February 15, please be advised that the goods were shipped as requested," say, "I am sorry to hear that you failed to receive the items you ordered last February 15. We shipped them the same day we received your letter."

Forms

In most businesses and public service agencies, repetitive work is simplified by the use of *forms*. Forms exist for nearly

every purpose imaginable: for ordering supplies, preparing invoices, applying for jobs, applying for insurance, paying taxes, recording inventories, and so on.

While the forms encountered in different agencies may differ widely, several principles should be applied in completing any form:

- *Legibility*. Entries on forms should be clear and legible. Print or type wherever possible. When space provided is insufficient, attach a supplementary sheet to the form.
- *Completeness*. Make an entry in every space provided on the form. If a particular space does not apply to the applicant, enter there the term "N/A" (for "not applicable"). The reader of the completed form will then know that the applicant did not simply overlook that space.
- *Conciseness*. Forms are intended to elicit a maximum amount of information in the least possible space. When completing a form, it is usually not necessary to write complete sentences. Provide the necessary information in the least possible words.
- *Accuracy*. Be sure the information provided on the form is accurate. If the entry is a number, such as a social security number or an address, double-check the correctness of the number. Be sure of the spelling of names, No one appreciates receiving a communication in which his name is misspelled.

Memoranda

The written communications passing between offices or departments are usually transmitted in a form known as *"interoffice memorandum."* The headings most often used on such "memos" are:

- TO: identifying the addressee,
- FROM: identifying the sender or the originating office,
- SUBJECT: identifying briefly the subject of the memo,
- DATE: identifying the date the memo was prepared.

Larger agencies may also use headings such as FILE or REFERENCE NO. to aid in filing and retrieving memoranda.

In writing a memo, many of the same rules for letter-writing may be applied. Both the appearance and tone of the memo should create a pleasing impression. The format should be neat and follow the standards set by the originating office. The tone should be friendly, courteous, and considerate. The language should be clear, concise, and complete.

Memos usually dispense with salutations, complimentary closings, and signatures of the writers. In most other respects, however, the memorandum will follow the rules of good letter-writing.

Minutes of Meetings

Most formal public-service organization conduct meetings from time to time at which group decisions are made about agency policies, procedures, and work assignments. The records of such meetings are called *minutes*.

Minutes should be written as clearly and simply as possible, summarizing only the essential facts and decisions made at the meeting. While some issue may have been discussed at great length, only the final decision or resolution made of it should be recorded in the minutes. Information of this sort is usually included:

- Time and place of the call to order,
- Presiding officer and secretary,
- Voting members present (with names, if a small organization),
- Approval and corrections of previous minutes,
- Urgent business,
- Old business,
- New business,
- Time of adjournment,
- Signature of recorder.

Minutes should be written in a factual and objective style. The opinions of the recorder should not be in evidence. Every item of business coming up before a meeting should be included in the minutes, together with its disposition. For example:

- "M/S/P (Moved, seconded, passed) that Mr. Thomas Jones take responsibility for rewriting the personnel procedures manual."
- "Discussion of the summer vacation schedule was tabled until the next meeting."
- "M/S/P, a resolution that no client of the agency should be kept waiting more than 20 minutes for an interview."

Note that considerable discussion may have surrounded each of the above items in the minutes, but that only the topic and its resolution are recorded.

Short Reports

The public-service employee often is called upon to prepare a short report gathering and interpreting information on a single topic. Reports of this kind are sometimes prepared so that all the relevant information may be assembled in one place to aid the organization in making certain decisions. Such reports may be read primarily by the staff of the organization or by others closely related to the decision-making process.

Reports may be prepared at other times for distribution to the public or to other agencies and institutions. These reports may serve the purpose of informing public opinion or persuading others on matters of public policy.

Whatever the purpose of the short report, its physical appearance and style of presentation should be designed to create a favorable impression on the reader. Even if the report is distributed only within the writer's own unit, an attractive, clear, thorough report will reflect the writer's dedication to his assignment and the pride he takes in his work.

Some guidelines which will assist the trainee in preparation of effective short reports include use of the following:

- A good quality paper;
- Wide and even margins, allowing binding room;
- An accepted standard style of typing;
- A title page;
- A table of contents (for more lengthy reports only);
- A graphic numbering or outlining system, if needed for clarity;
- Graphics and photos to clarify meaning when useful;
- Footnotes, used sparingly, and only when they contribute to the report;
- A bibliography of sources, using a standard citation style.

A discussion of the organization of content for informational reports follows later in this document.

Telegrams and Cables

From time to time messages of special urgency must be sent by public telegraph wires, cables, and radio. With this service, written communications may be exchanged worldwide within minutes at a cost not greatly more than for a letter.

The public-service employee should be familiar with the telegraph service and able to prepare written messages for this medium. The student should be familiar with the classes of service available: "full-rate service," "day letter," and "night letter," since the class of service will affect the style of writing.

Skill in preparing telegraph messages rests largely on the writer's ability to summarize. The essential information must be presented in the fewest possible words. Good messages would follow these guidelines:

- Omission of articles and prepositions unless essential to meaning,
- Use of verb forms of the fewest words,
- Use of single words rather than phrases,
- Omission of unnecessary information and words.

For example:

> "I am taking American Airlines Flight 222 from Chicago at 8:15 Wednesday evening and will arrive at Los Angeles International Airport at 10:15. I would appreciate it if you would meet me."

Can be compressed to:

> "Arriving American 222 Los Angeles International Wednesday 10:15 PM. Please meet."

The minimum charge on a full-rate telegram is based upon 15 words. The student should develop skill in writing 15-word summaries in telegraph style.

News Releases

From time to time, the public-service employees may be called upon to prepare a news release for his agency. Whenever the activities of the agency are newsworthy or of interest to the public, the agency has an obligation to report such activities to the press. The most common means for such reporting is by using the press release. Most newspapers and broadcasting stations are initially informed of agencies' activities by news releases distributed by the agencies themselves. Thus, the news release is a basic tool for communicating with the public served by the agency.

The news release is written in news style, with these basic characteristics:

- Sentences are short and simple.
- Paragraphs are short (one or two sentences) and relate to a single item of information.
- Paragraphs are arranged in *inverted order* - the most important in information appears first.
- The first or *lead* paragraph summarizes the entire story. If the reader went no further, he would have the essential information.
- Subsequent paragraphs provide further details, the most important occurring first.
- Reported information is attributed to sources; that is, the source of the news is reported in the story.
- The expression of the writer's opinions is scrupulously avoided.
- The 5 W's (who, what, why, where, when) are included.

News releases should be typed double spaced on standard 8½ x 11 paper, with generous margins and at least 2" of open space above the lead paragraph. Do not write headlines - that is the editor's job. At the top of the first page of the release include the name of the agency releasing the story and the name and phone number of the person to contact if more information is needed. If the release runs more than one page, end each page with the word "-more-" to indicate that more copy follows. End the release with the symbols "###" to indicate that the copy ends at that point.

Accuracy and physical appearance are essential characteristics of the news release. Typographical errors, or errors of fact, such as misspelled names, lead editors to doubt the reliability of the story. Great care should be taken to assure the accuracy and reliability of a news release.

REPORTING ON A TOPIC

At one time or another, most public-service employees will be asked to prepare a report on some topic. Usually the need for the report grows out of some policy decision contemplated by the agency for which full information must be considered. For example:

- Should the agency undertake some new project or service?
- Should working conditions be changed?
- Are new specialists needed on the staff?
- Or should a branch office be opened up?

Or any of a hundred other such decisions which the agency must make from time to time.

When called upon to prepare such a report, the employee should have a model to follow which will guide his collection of information and will help him to prepare an effective and useful report.

As with other forms of written communication, both the physical appearance and content of the report are important to create a favorable impression and to engender confidence. The physical appearance of such reports has been discussed earlier; additional suggestions for reports are given in Unit 3. Basic guidelines follow below for organizing and preparing the content.

Preparation for the Report

What is the Purpose of the Report? The preparer of the report should have clearly in mind why the report is needed:

- What is the decision being contemplated by the agency?
- To what use will the report be put?

Before beginning to prepare the report, the writer should discuss its purpose fully with the decision-making staff to articulate the purpose the report is intended to serve. If the employee is himself initiating the report, it would be well to discuss its purpose with colleagues to assure that its purpose is clear in his own mind.

What Questions Should the Report Answer? Once the purpose of the report is clear, the questions the report must answer may begin to become clear. For example, if the decision faced by the agency is whether or not to offer a new service, questions may be asked such as these:

- What persons would be served by the new service?
- What would the new service cost?
- What new staff would be needed?
- What new equipment and facilities would be needed?
- What alternative ways exist for offering the service?
- How might the new service be administered?

And so on. Unless the purpose of the report is clear, it is difficult to decide what specific questions need to be answered. Once the purpose is clear, these questions can be specified.

Where Can the Relevant Information be Obtained? Once the questions are clear in the writer's mind, he can identify the information he will need to answer them. Information may usually be obtained from two general sources:

- *Relevant documents.* Records, publications, and other reports are often useful in locating the information needed to answer particular questions. These may be in the files of the writer's own agency, in other agencies, or in libraries.
- *Personal contacts.* Persons in a position to know the needed information may be contacted in person, by phone, or by letter. Such contacts are especially important in obtaining firsthand accounts of previous experience.

The Text of the Report

What are the Answers to the Questions? Once the relevant information is in hand, the answers to the questions may be assembled.

- What does the information reveal? This activity amounts to summarizing the information obtained. It often helps to organize this summary around the specific questions asked by the report. For example, if the report asks in one part, "What are the costs of the new service likely to be?" one section of the report should summarize the information gathered to answer this question.

Organizing the Report. The organization of a report into main and sub-sections depends upon the nature of the report. Reports will differ widely in their organization and treatment. In general, however, the report should generally follow the pattern previously discussed. That is, reports which generally include the following subjects in order will be found to be clear in their intent and to communicate effectively:

- *Description of problem or purpose.* Example: "One problem facing our agency is whether or not we should extend our hours of operation to better serve the public. This report is intended to examine the problem and make recommendations."
- *Questions to be answered.* Example: "In examining this problem, answers were sought to the following questions: What persons would be served? What would it cost? What staff would be needed?"
- *Information sources.* Example: "To answer these questions, letters of complaint for the past three years were examined. Interviews with clients were conducted by phone and in per-

son, phone interviews were conducted with the agency directors in Memphis, Philadelphia, and Chicago."

- *Summary of findings.* Example: "At least 25 percent of the agency's clients would be served better by evening or Saturday service. The costs of operating eight hours of extended service would be negligible, since the service could be provided by rescheduling work assignments. The present staff report they would be inconvenienced by evening and Saturday work assignments."

The Writer's Responsibilities. It is the writer's responsibility to address finally the original purpose of the report. Once the questions have been answered, an informed judgment can be made as to the decision facing the agency. It is at this stage that the writer attempts to draw conclusions from the information he has gathered and summarized. For example, if the original purpose of the report was to help make a decision about whether or not the agency should offer a new service, the writer should draw conclusions from the information and recommend either for or against the new service.

Conclusions and Recommendations. Example: "It appears that operating during extended hours would better serve a significant number of clients. The writer recommends that the agency offer this new service. The present staff should be given temporary assignments to cover the extended hours. As new staff are hired to replace separating persons, they should be hired specifically to cover the extended hours."

PERSUASIVE WRITING

Often in life, people are called upon to persuade individuals and groups to adopt ideas believed to be good, or attitudes favorable to ideas thought to be worthwhile or behavior believed to be beneficial. The public service employee may find he must persuade the staff of his own agency, his superiors, the clients of the agency, or the general public in his community.

Persuading others by means of written and other forms of communication is a difficult task and requires much practice. Some principles have emerged from the study of persuasion which may provide some guidelines for developing a model for persuasive writing.

General Guidelines for Writing Persuasively

Know the Credibility of the Source. People are more likely to be persuaded by a message they perceive originates from a trustworthy source. Their trust is enhanced if the source is seen as authoritative, or knowledgeable on the issue discussed in the message. Their trust is increased also if the source appears to have nothing to gain either way, has no vested interest in the final decision. Then, the assertions made in persuasive writing should be backed up by referencing trustworthy and disinterested information sources.

Avoid Overemotional Appeals. Appealing to the common emotions of man - love, hate, fear, sex, etc. - can have a favorable effect on the outcome of a persuasive message. But care should be taken because, if the appeal is too strong, it can lead to a reverse effect. For example, if an agency wanted to persuade the public to get chest X-rays, it would have much greater chance of success if it adopted a positive and helpful attitude rather than trying to frighten them into this action. For instance, appealing mildly to the sense of well-being which accompanies knowledge of one's own good health, instead of shocking the public by showing horror pictures of patients who died from lack of timely X-rays.

Consider the Other Man's Point of View. To persuade another to one's own point of view, should the writer include information and arguments contrary to his own position? Or should he argue only for his own side?

Generally, it depends on where most of the audience stand in the first place. If most of the audience already favor the position being advocated, then the writer will probably do better including only information favorable to his position. However, if the greater part of the audience are likely to oppose this position, then the writer would probably be better off including their arguments also. In this case, he may be helping his cause by rebutting the opposing arguments as he introduces them into the writing.

An example of this technique might occur in arguing for such an idea as a four-day, forty-hour workweek. Thus: "Many people feel that the ten-hour day is too long and that they would arrive home too late for their regular dinner hour. But think! If you have dinner a littler later each night, you'll have a three-day weekend every week. More days free to go fishing, or camping. More days with your wife and children." That is good persuasive writing!

Interpersonal Communications

The important role of interpersonal communication in persuading others - face-to-face and person-to-person communications - has been well documented. Mass mailings or printed messages will likely have less effect than personal letters and conversations between persons already known to each other. In any persuasion campaign the personal touch is very important.

An individual in persuading a large number of persons will likely be more effective if he can organize a letter-writing campaign of persuasive messages written by persons favorable to his position to their friends and acquaintances, than if his campaign is based upon sending out a mass mailing of a printed message.

Conditions for Persuading. In order for an audience of one or many to be persuaded in the manner desired, these conditions must be met:

- the audience must be *exposed* to the message,
- members of the audience must *perceive* the intent of the message,
- they must *remember* the message afterwards,
- each member must *decide* whether or not to adopt the ideas.

Each member of the audience will respond to a message differently. While every person may receive the message, not everyone will read it. Even among those who read it, not everyone will perceive it in the same way. Some will remember it longer than others. Not everyone will decide to adopt the ideas. These effects are called *selective exposure, selective perception, selective retention,* and *selective decision.*

The Persuasion Campaign. How can one counteract these selective effects in persuading others? One thing that is known is that *people tend to be influenced by persuasive messages which they are already predisposed to accept.* This means a person is more likely to persuade people a little than to persuade them a lot.

In planning a persuasion campaign, therefore, the messages should be tailored to the audiences. Success will be more likely if one starts with people who believe *almost* as the writer wants to persuade them to believe - people who are most likely to agree with the position advocated.

The writer also wants to use arguments based on values the particular audience already accepts. For example, in advo-

cating a new teen-age job program, he might argue with business men that the program will help business; with parents, that it will build character; with teachers, that it is educational; with taxpayers, that it will reduce future taxes; and so on.

The idea is to find some way to make sure that each member of the particular audiences reached can see an advantage for himself, and for the writer to then tailor the messages for those audiences.

INSTRUCTIONAL WRITING

Another task that the public-service employee may expect to face from time to time is the instruction of some other person in the performance of a task. This may sometimes involve preparing written instructions to other employees in the unit, or preparing a training manual for new employees.

It may sometimes involve preparing instructional manuals for clients of the unit, such as "How to Apply for a Real Estate License," "How to Bathe your Baby," or "How to Recognize the Symptoms of Heart Disease."

Whatever the purpose or the audience, certain principles of instruction may be applied which will help make more effective these instructional or training communications. These are: *advance organizers, practice, errorless learning,* and *feedback.*

Advance Organizers

At or near the beginning of an instructional communication, it helps the learner if he is provided with what can be called an "advance organizer." This element of the communication performs two functions:

- it provides a framework or "map" for the leader to organize the information he will encounter,
- it helps the learner perceive his purpose in learning the tasks which will follow.

The first paragraphs in this section, for example, serve together as an advance organizer. The trainee is informed that he may be called upon to perform these tasks in his job *(perceived purpose),* and that he will be instructed in advance organizers, practice, errorless learning, and feedback *(framework, or "map").*

Practice

The notion of *practice makes perfect* is a sound instructional principle. When trying to teach someone to perform a task by means of written communication, the writer should build in many opportunities for practicing the task, or parts of it. This built-in practice should be both appropriate and active:

- *Appropriate practice* is practice which is directly related to learning the tasks at hand.
- *Active practice* is practice in actually performing the task at hand or parts of it, rather than simply reading about the task, or thinking about it.

By inserting questions into the text of the communication, by giving practice quizzes, exercises, or field work, one can build into his instructional communication the kind of practice necessary for the reader to readily learn the task.

Errorless Learning

The practice given learners should be easy to do. That is, they should not be asked to practice a task if they are likely to make a lot of mistakes. When a mistake is practiced it is likely to recur again and again, like spelling "demons," which have been spelled wrong so often it's difficult to recall the way they should be spelled. Because it is better to practice a task right from the first, it is important that learners do not make errors in practice.

- One method for encouraging correct practice is to give the reader hints, or *prompts*, to help him practice correctly.
- Another method is to instruct him in a logical sequence a little bit at a time. Don't try to teach everything at once. Break the task down into small parts and teach each part of the task in order. Then give the learner practice in each part of the task before giving him practice in the whole thing.
- A third way of encouraging errorless learning is to build in practice and review throughout the communication. The learner may forget part of the task if the teacher doesn't review it with him from time to time.

Remember, people primarily learn from what they <u>do</u>, so build in to the instructional communication many opportunities for the learner to practice correctly all of the parts of the task required for learning, first separately and then all together.

Feedback

The reader, or learner, can't judge how well he is learning the task unless he is informed of it. In a classroom situation, the teacher usually confirms that the learner has been successful, or points out the errors he made, and provides additional instruction. An instructional communication can also help learners in the same way, by providing *feedback* to the learner.

Following practice, the writer should include in his instructional communication information which will let the reader know whether he performed the task correctly. In case he didn't, the writer should also include some further information which will help the reader perform it correctly next time. This feedback, then, performs two functions:

- it helps the learner confirm that his practice was done correctly, and
- it helps him correct his performance of the task in case he made any errors.

Feedback will be most helpful to the learner if it occurs immediately following practice. The learner should be brought to know of his success or his errors just as soon as possible after practice.

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

- Write "asking" and "answering" letters, and answer a letter of complaint, using the format assigned by the teacher.
- Write memoranda to other "offices" in a fictitious organization. Plan a field trip using only memos to communicate with other students in the class.
- Take minutes of a small group meeting. Or attend a meeting of the school board and take minutes.
- Write a short report on a public service occupation of special interest to you.
- Write a 15-word telegram reserving a single room at a hotel and asking to be picked up at the airport.
- Write a news release announcing a new service offered to the public by your agency.
- Based upon hearing a reading or pretaping of a report, summarize the report in news style.
- View films on effective communication, for example, *Getting the Facts*, *Words that Don't Inform*, and *A Message to No One*.
- For a given problem or purpose, compile a list of specific questions you would need to answer to write a report on the topic.

- For a given list of questions, discuss and compile a list of information sources relevant to the questions.
- As a member of a group, consider the problem of "What field trip should the class take to help students learn how to write an effective news release?" What questions will you need to answer? Where will you obtain your information?
- As a member of a group, gather the information and prepare a short report based on it for presentation to the class.
- Write a report on a problem assigned by your teacher.
- Write a brief persuasive letter to a friend on a given topic. Assume he does not already agree with you. Apply principles of source credibility, emotional appeals, and one or both sides of the issue to persuade him.
- Plan a persuasive campaign to persuade a given segment of your community to take some given action.
- Write a short instructional communication on a verbal learning task assigned by your teacher.
- Write a short instructional communication on a learning task which involves the operation of equipment.
- Try your instructional communications with a fellow student to check for errors during practice.

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

- Have students practice letter writing. Assign letters of "asking" and "answering." Read them a letter of complaint and ask them to write an answering letter. Establish common rules of format and style for each assignment. Change the rules from time to time to give practice in several styles.
- Have small groups plan an event, such as a field trip, assigning the various tasks to one another using only memoranda. Evaluate the effectiveness of each group's memo writing by the speed and completeness of their planning.
- Have the class attend a public meeting. Assign each the task of taking the minutes. Evaluate the minutes for brevity and completeness.
- Encourage each student to prepare a short report on a public service occupation of special interest to himself.
- Give the students practice in writing 15-word telegrams.
- Have the students prepare a news release announcing some new service offered to the public, such as "Taxpayers can now obtain help from the Internal Revenue Service in completing their income tax forms as a result of a new service now being offered by the agency."
- Give the students practice in summarizing and writing leads

by giving them the facts of a news event and asking them to write a one or two-sentence lead summarizing the significant facts of the event.

- Read a speech or a story. Have students write a summary and a report of the speech or story in news style.
- Show films on effective communication, for example, *Getting the Facts, Words that Don't Inform,* and *A Message to No One.*
- State a general problem and have each student prepare a list of the specific questions implied by the problem.
- State a list of specific questions and discuss with the class the sources of information which might bear upon each of the questions.
- Have small groups consider and write short reports jointly on the general problem, "What field trip should the class take to help students learn how to write an effective news release?" Have each group identify the specific questions to be answered, with sources for needed information.
- Have each student identify and prepare a short report on a general problem of interest.
- Assign students to work in groups of three or four to draft a letter to a friend to persuade him to make a contribution to establish a new city art museum.
- Assign the students to groups of five or six, each group to map out a persuasive campaign on a given topic. Some topics are "Give Blood," "Get Chest X-Ray," "Quit Smoking," "Don't Litter," "Inspect Your House Wiring," etc.
- Have each student identify a simple verbal learning task and prepare an instructional communication to teach that task to another student not familiar with the task.
- Have each student prepare an instructional manual designed to train someone to operate some simple piece of equipment, such as an adding machine, a slide projector, a tape recorder, or something of similar complexity.
- Have each student try his instructional communication out on another student, unfamiliar with the task. He should observe the activities and responses of the trial student to identify errors made in practice. He should revise the communication, adding practice, review, and prompts wherever needed to reduce errors in practice.

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Unit 3

BASIC REPORT WRITING

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Unit 3

BASIC REPORT WRITING

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

1. Ability to understand how reports are used.
2. Ability to form an appreciation for the importance of effective report writing in public service occupations.
3. Ability to define and differentiate between the types of reports.
4. Ability to select the proper form for a report.
5. Ability to recognize the steps in preparing a good report.
6. Ability to demonstrate a knowledge of correct word usage and its importance in a report.
7. Ability to demonstrate the proper grammatical structure in report writing.
8. Ability to explain the importance of using a dictionary in report writing.

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

A report is the communication of information in the most convenient form to someone who wants or needs it. It is difficult to overstate the importance of reports in our complex society today. They provide the data on which far-reaching decisions and policy are determined. A report that is not accurate or that is incomplete may cause the writer and the receiver misunderstanding, antagonism, and costly errors. Repeated errors in reports may well cost the writer his position.

Many of the reports that public service workers make are oral

ones. However, the more important reports are always required to be in writing.

A report is always addressed to someone - the audience. The audience is usually a superior who needs the information to determine what action to take or what recommendations to pass on to his superior. The good report writer analyzes the audience to which the report will be directed.

- Should the report be a formal document or should the report be an informal memo?
- How will the audience use the report?
- Will it be passed along to others in the organization, or people in other areas?

The report writer's answers to questions such as these may well determine the format that is selected for the report.

TYPES OF REPORTS

The Formal Report. Formal reports usually follow a format prescribed by the agency or department. A central office typically supplies the form on which the report is to be prepared and submitted. A copy of a previous report is frequently used as a guideline in preparing the new one. This procedure saves considerable time and makes it easier for the central office to analyze and interpret the information contained in the report.

The Informal Report. Another type of report, the informal one, frequently takes the form of a note or memo requesting additional supplies, services, or providing suggestions for the supervisor or a fellow worker. The informal report could possibly contain abbreviations, first names, and technical jargon that would be meaningless to anyone not acquainted with the situation in which it was written.

The Semi-Formal Report. A semi-formal report fits between the casual or informal memo and the highly structured and authoritative formal report. The semi-formal report is to be considered more important than the informal one and consequently is written with more thought and care than the informal report.

EXAMPLES OF REPORTS

School Setting. The various types of reports may be illustrated in school settings:

- *The Formal Report*. Progress reports, attendance reports, accident reports, and classroom reports prepared by students; these are all examples of well-structured formal reports. The importance of such reports is great. For example, the attendance reports determine how many teachers will be added or deleted from the faculty, in addition to being the basis for computing the state's financial contribution to the local school district.

- *The Semi-Formal Report* is illustrated by the office referral requesting action because of a student's behavior. It may result in a student-administrator conference, a parent conference, or even student suspension from school.

- *The Informal Report*. The note that a teacher leaves in the school mail for the staff assistant in charge of audiovisual equipment requesting service on the malfunctioning movie projector is an example of an informal report.

Public Service Agencies. The public-service report writer will find that he is writing:

- About specific subjects, and about various technicalities or events associated with the governmental agency or a responsibility assigned to it.
- With certain formal elements, such as the technical vocabulary of the department and the use of forms prepared by the department or agency.
- With an attitude of impartiality and objectivity, taking extreme care to convey information accurately and concisely, and with no attempt to arouse emotions.

Police Reporting - An illustration which would be meaningful to students may be made by examining what a policeman would include in a report when investigating an automobile accident. The policeman's report must contain such specific facts as:

- The names, addresses, phone numbers, ages, drivers' license numbers, and the identification of witnesses to the accident.
- Where the accident occurred - address.
- Description of the accident scene.
- The witnesses' observations - obtaining not only their account of events, but from what point they observed the event, and what they were doing at the time.
- Time and day of the accident.
- Weather conditions at the time of accident.

- The location of traffic signals, stop signs, skid marks, traffic lanes, etc.
- Description of the injuries, if any, or lack of apparent injuries.
- Description of the automobiles involved and apparent damages.

The investigating officer will have a pad of accident report forms which will outline the information needed. This insures that in the emotion and tension of the accident scene the investigating officer will be reminded of the information that he needs to include in the report. Numbers will be used to code certain information. This speeds up the writing, simplifies the recording and filing of the information, and makes the report less emotional.

The accident report will be of major importance when the insurance companies settle the claim. If there is a dispute over the settlement, the police report will be entered into the court record. The officer who wrote the report will also have to testify. The testimony may not be called for years after the accident and the officer will have to use the report to refresh his memory. It would probably be difficult for the officer otherwise to recall all of the events or even to notice them all at the time, as he may have had to direct traffic, administer first aid, call an ambulance, and keep curious bystanders out of the way. Even though human life may have been lost or saved by the policeman's actions on the scene, the primary issues in which the court or insurance adjusters will be interested are the facts in his report.

Other Reporting Areas - There are other workers in the public service area, such as teachers' aides, recreation aides, and forestry aides, who are likely to be required to complete accident reports while on the job. While their reports may not be as sensational as the police report, they are important and may be used in subsequent litigation.

It should also be pointed out that any report may have far-reaching ramifications. However, it is wise to be especially careful if a financial settlement between two adversaries will be affected by the report.

THE REPORT WRITER

Regardless of the type of report that is being prepared, the key to a good report is a good writer. The writer is the prime mover of the entire process. He gathers the material, interprets it, organizes it, and chooses the vocabulary. The writer imposes meaning merely by determining whether to make the report a formal, a semi-formal, or an informal one.

The reader is led to an understanding by an orderly presentation of the facts. The facts are determined by the writer's examination and observations of the situation or activity. The report's validity hinges upon the competence and objectivity of the writer and the accuracy of his observations.

Competence in report writing means that an individual has acquired the technique of careful inquiry. This may be illustrated by the police officer at the scene of the accident. He will take statements from witnesses, take measurements of skid marks, inspect and record the automobiles' registrations, and inspect the scene of the accident for real evidence that may have been instrumental in the cause of the accident, such as flat tires, conditions of the tires on the automobiles, mechanical defects, health of the drivers, etc. The report writer must acquire the habit of orderly thinking from problems to solutions, and learn to write an exact statement.

A good report communicates clear ideas in simple language. The organization is orderly and fast moving. It is easy to read and uses visual aids where they will best carry forward the message. These skills are required of almost every member of governmental agencies. Management quickly recognizes competence in the preparation of reports. The individual who writes them well will assume a position of leadership at every level where accurate data supplies the basis for a difficult decision.

CHOOSING BEST WORDS

A major aspect of clear and concise report writing is being careful to select the proper word to express the thought exactly.

Use Proper Word for Intended Meaning. Since any one word may have a number of different meanings in different contexts, the writer must be certain that the word chosen is appropriate to convey the intended meaning within the human situation in which it is used. Paul Douglas, in his book *Communicating Through Reports,* illustrates this point with "word." He lists twelve different meanings, ranging from the preacher expounding the *Word* (scripture) to the wife's having the *last word* (decision). This relationship of meaning to the environment and circumstances of its use is known as *context.*

Nearly all words mean more than they seem to mean; they possess associative meanings, almost outlying areas of suggestive values. The bare dictionary meaning of a word is its *denotation.* The *connotation* of a word relates to the suggestions and associations which have surrounded it.

For example, a dictionary definition of the word "gold" is "a precious yellow metal which is highly malleable and ductible. This is its denotation. But along with its denotative meaning, gold has also been associated with wealth, value, color, and power. These characteristics are the connotations of gold.

Beyond the core of the dictionary definition are suggestions, associations, and implications. Connotations must be watched as they have practical consequences for the report writer. Words and phrases with unpleasant connotations may become fighting words which blind the reader to anything else in the report. The following words are a few that have negative suggestions: mistakes, inefficient, death, refuse, error, rejecting, prohibited, unfair, poor judgment, and failed.

The writer may avoid irritation by choosing words with positive or neutral connotations. Note the difference in meaning of the following words:

- car, automobile, limousine
- inebriated, intoxicated, drunk
- portly, stout, obese
- smell, smell bad, stink
- slow, lazy, sluggish
- firm, obstinate, pigheaded
- Negro, colored man, black man
- dog, hound, mongrel

To use words both accurately and effectively, one must understand their connotations as well as their denotations. Social welfare aides, employment service workers, and probation services aides need to be especially alert to those words which are unique to the groups of people they serve. When wishing to express something with literal accuracy, the report writer will rely wholly upon the standards set by the department or dictionary definitions.

Eliminate Slang in Reports. *Slang should not be used in reports except when reporting dialogue.* There are several reasons for not using slang:

- First, many slang words and expressions are so short-lived that they will be outmoded before the report will have lived its useful life.
- Second, the use of slang expressions may be an excuse for not searching for the exact words to express the meaning.

Many slang expressions are only rubber stamps; to refer to a person as a "dude" hardly expresses exactly any critical judgment or intelligent description. To argue that such a word conveys precisely the intended meaning is to reveal a poverty of vocabulary, or careless thinking and laxness. The most serious charge against slang is that it becomes a substitute for thinking. Public service workers are likely to encounter the following slang:

- grubby
- get burned
- the boss
- real cool dude
- far out
- right on
- groovy
- bummer
- a drag
- rip off
- split
- low rider
- doing your own thing
- busted

The list could go on indefinitely. It would be very difficult to get a widely acceptable definition for any one of the above slang words. *Slang does express feeling, but when writing reports, the main concern is facts, not feelings.*

CHOOSING BEST PHRASES

Don't Use Weasel Words. Other words to avoid in writing reports are what some authors call "weasel words." *A weasel word is a phrase that rids the writer of any responsibility for a statement.* By the use of the weasel word, the writer attempts to wriggle out of a position of accountability for an observation, inference, or statement, as may be seen by these examples:

- It would be difficult to estimate . . .
- It is too early to say whether . . .
- It is generally believed that . . .
- It would appear that . . .
- There may be a tendency toward . . .

Weasel words are usually used with the passive voice, which is discussed later in this unit under "Writing Sentences."

Clichés to Avoid. Public-service workers, like many other report writers, too often use words and phrases which are trite, outworn, commonplace, and flat stereotypes. Here are some examples of cliches which should be avoided:

- It certainly merits study . . .
- We will see what may be done . . .

- This suggestion certainly has merit . . .
- The matter is receiving our closest attention . . .
- We will explore every avenue . . .
- The handwriting on the wall . . .
- Let's get down to brass tacks . . .
- Naturally, the child's interest is our concern . . .
- Fools rush in . . .
- In the last analysis . . .
- No thinking man . . .
- The skeleton in the closet . . .
- Let sleeping dogs . . .

Cliches are similar to slang in that they are but rubber stamps, "stereotyped plates" of thought and expression. They save the writer the trouble of thinking exactly what he means. Consequently, they get in the way of clear and concise report writing.

Don't Use Excess Wordage. Diction, to be effective, must be as economical as possible. Necessary words should not be omitted nor should the report be sketchy. However, wordiness should be avoided as it lessens the force of expression. *In forceful writing, the ratio of ideas to words is high.* Conciseness alone will not achieve effective writing, but it is extremely difficult to write forcefully if you use two or three words to convey the idea which one word would express. Note these examples of excess or "superfluous" words:

- absolutely parallel
- first beginnings
- free gratis
- someone I met up with
- perfect circle
- the sunset in the west
- resume again
- join together

Don't be Pompous. When it is possible to reduce a group of words to a single word, it should be done. Here are some examples of economy in diction that are achieved by reducing pompous phrases to more natural words:

Pompous	Natural
in the nature of	like
for the purpose of	for
prior to	before
subsequent to	after
despite the fact that	though
give consideration to	consider
give instruction to	instruct

° is due in large measure to	° is due largely to
° confidential nature	° confidential information

WRITING SENTENCES

Be Simple. *One of the most important rules to follow in writing a report is to keep your sentences short, usually twenty words or less.* Language, like a machine, will be the most efficient when it operates on the principle that the more simple and better arranged the parts, the greater the effect which is produced. The subject-verb-object sentence is the best arrangement of parts in the simple report.

Keep Active. Verbs should be kept active. Avoid the passive voice; this puts excess words in a sentence, and its dullness derives as much from its extra wordage as from its impersonality. John was hit by Don says no more than Don hit John but takes 66 percent more words.

The passive voice's inevitable "was" and "by" do nothing but connect; worse, all the "was's" and "by's" and "has been's" actually get in the way of words carrying the meaning. It's like underbrush, it slows you down and hides what the report reader should see.

The passive voice, in its wordiness, is likely to be unclear even on the surface. When it eliminates the subject of the verb, as it usually does, it is intrinsically unclear. For example, a sentence written in the passive voice will often begin: "This evidence has been selected because...." The reader cannot tell who did the selecting. Does the writer mean that he picked it or does he describe some process of popular selection? It is usually surmised that the writer did the selecting, but why doesn't he say so and save a word and avoid confusion? "I selected this evidence because...." *The report writer should be careful not to leave the reader with any assumptions or implications.*

Don't be Wordy. Government writing is often noted for its wordiness. The following example is taken from a World War II price control regulation:

> "Ultimate consumer means a person or group of persons, generally constituting a domestic household, who purchase eggs generally at the individual stores or retailers or purchase and receive deliveries of eggs at the place of abode of the individual or domestic household from producers or retail route sellers and who use such eggs for their consumption or food."

This statement may be changed, without changing its meaning, by reducing it to:

"Ultimate consumers are people who buy eggs to eat them."

A good writer sees sharply what he wants to say, says directly what he sees, edits what he says, and takes pain to ease his reader's task. The example just given illustrates how much more readable a short sentence is than a long one.

WRITING A GOOD PARAGRAPH

The next major step after writing sentences is the construction of paragraphs. A good paragraph will clearly state the central ideas, it will fill in supporting details, and show how the central idea relates to the ideas which precede and follow it. The proper length of a paragraph is much like Abraham Lincoln's idea of a speech; it should be long enough to reach the end. There are exceptions, however. A report writer should be critical of his writing when a page of typewritten copy contains more than three or less than one complete paragraph.

Developing a Paragraph. There are many different ways of developing a paragraph in a report. The entry-level public-service worker may well utilize a variation of the following patterns of development:

- *Definition and description.* The writer gives his reader all the concepts he needs to follow the presentation.
- *Historical summary.* The writer briefs the reader on where the problem came from and why it is a problem. It provides a perspective for the problem.
- *Case history.* The report writer details an actual record for the reader.
- *Description of a process.* The report describes in detail how factors work together to produce a certain result.
- *Occasional summary.* The writer restates the essential data and ties facts together to clarify them for the reader.
- *Cause and effect.* The writer explains the forces that produce certain consequences.
- *Examination of alternatives.* The writer may present the material so that the reader can make an examination of alternatives and their possible consequences.
- *Directive.* The reader will be told what to do. The writer may describe steps to be taken.

Paragraph Construction. Regardless of the paragraph's development, a well-constructed paragraph will be correct, clear, and effective. Eight desirable paragraph characteristics are listed below:

- A good paragraph contains an implied or expressed topic sentence.
- A good paragraph is never sketchy or incomplete. It contains a complete body of thought.
- A good paragraph is mechanically correct. It is properly indented or otherwise set off. It correctly represents every change of speaker in dialogue.
- A good paragraph is unified. Extraneous details are eliminated.
- A good paragraph contains material arranged in proper order. Good arrangement of ideas demonstrates logical thinking on the part of the writer.
- A good paragraph should make orderly clear progress and there should be clear passage from one paragraph to another.
- A good paragraph will be of suitable length.
- A good paragraph is well proportioned to the importance of the content. The longest paragraph of the report should not deal with the least significant idea.

SPECIAL WORD FORMS

The report writer will need to know how to handle such other items as abbreviations and numbers, in addition to writing clear sentences in well constructed paragraphs.

Using Numbers Correctly. Nearly all reports contain numbers. Should the number be written out or should it be shown in figures? Many reports consist primarily of numbers. Such reports call for the use of figures. However, other reports which are not primarily numerical reports may leave the writer in doubt as to how the numbers should be shown. The following suggestions may be helpful:

- Numbers requiring the use of more than one word or a hyphenated word are usually written as figures.
- A number which begins a sentence is written as a word; if this is awkward or inconsistent with the rest of the text, replace the sentence.
- Numbers under ten are usually written as words unless they appear in writing which is full of numbers.

- Numbers that express dimensions are usually written as figures.
- Numbers which contain decimal fractions are always written as figures.
- Any number naming a common fraction is usually written as a hyphenated word.
- Numbers in any sentence in which other numbers are to occur in figure form are usually written in figures.
- Numbers that tell either time, date, or percentage are usually written in figures.
- Numbers above ten naming streets are usually written as figures with the indicators of pronounciation, -st, -nd, -th, attached.
- Round numbers, such as "thousands," are usually written as words except where numbers are occurring very frequently.
- Any number appearing occasionally and simple enough to express in one word is usually written as a word.
- Numbers appearing as two separate categories, one after the other, are usually written as words for the first category and as figures for the second. (five 2 x 4 boards)

The report writer should remember that the above guidelines are suggestions and that some of them may actually contradict each other. Common sense should determine whether or not a number be written as a figure or a word.

Using Abbreviations Correctly. Abbreviations are found more often in reports than in any other form of writing. Although the use of abbreviations is a healthy part of the style of field reports, it is definitely limited and kept in check by both tradition and common sense. *Only those abbreviations which will be easily understood by the reader are to be used.* Many agencies or departments will have a number of abbreviations that they use regularly, particularly in informal reports. Handbooks or manuals issued by the department will list these and the new worker should memorize them. The use of abbreviations has met with limited success because of the time saved in writing certain reports; the use should be very restricted in formal reports.

There are several rules regarding the general idea of permissible abbreviations in report writing:

- Whenever abbreviations have been used so long that they have assumed vocabulary status, they should be used. Some such abbreviations are Mr., Mrs., B.C., A.D., FBI, CIA, a.m., p.m. (Each job family will have a number of abbreviations of its own.)

* Whenever the names of units are preceded by numerals, it is usually best to abbreviate the names of the units. For instance:

    a. The auto was going 75-mph in the 25-mph zone.

    b. It was 65° F today.

    c. The unit has a 3-hp engine.

* If an abbreviation makes an English word (as for example, in. for inches), use a period. Otherwise, most good writers do not use periods in most cases.

If a term must be repeated many times in a report, that term calls for explanation and thereafter possible abbreviation, regardless of what it is.

Using Contractions Correctly. A contraction is a form of abbreviation. It is a word written with an apostrophe to indicate the omission of a letter. Contractions should be used very seldom in formal reports, but are common in semiformal and informal ones. Field reports are full of abbreviations and contractions as their use can greatly speed up the process of gathering data in the field.

Using Capital Letters Correctly. Report writing calls for no departure from the conventional rules for the use of capital letters. Proper names, names of cities and states, official titles, and organizations are always captalized. There are two practices common to reports:

* Capitalize all important words in titles, division headings, side headings, and captions. By "important" is meant all words except articles, prepositions, and conjunctions.

* Capitalize Figure, Table, Volume, Number as part of titles. Thus, reference would be made to Figure 4, Table 2, etc.

When in doubt, do not capitalize.

Using Punctuation Correctly. Clear communication is dependent upon yet another aspect of written language, punctuation. Every sentence begins with a capital letter, and ends with either a period, question mark, or exclamation point. Punctuation which does not contribute to the clarity of thought should be avoided. Most of the difficulties with punctuation arise out of the use of the comma, semicolon, and colon. For information on other punctuation, see any good handbook of grammar.

The Comma. The principal uses of the comma are:

- Between independent clauses connected by a coordinating conjunction (and, but, for, or, nor, yet). But if commas are used in any of the independent clauses constituting a sentence, a semicolon must be used between the clauses.
- After introductory clauses or phrases preceding the main clause of the sentence.
- Between items in a series.
- Around parenthetical phrases, appositives, and nonrestrictive modifiers.

The Semicolon. The semicolon is almost as strong a mark of separation as the period. It is chiefly used between the independent clauses not connected with one of the coordinating conjunctions, and between clauses connected with a coordinating conjunction which are long, or unrelated, or contain commas.

The Colon. The colon signals that something is to follow. It is a mark introducing lists, series, and quotations. It is used as a salutation in a business letter, in separating the hours and minutes in a statement of time, or in separating volume and pages in a bibliographical entry.

USING THE DICTIONARY IN REPORT WRITING

Dictionary Usage. The report writer should be aware of the fact that most dictionaries have a section listing the principal rules of capitalization, punctuation, and spelling. A dictionary should be considered one of the necessary tools for good report writing, together with the pencil and paper. The report writer should be using the dictionary for the following purposes:

- To determine the exact meaning of a word.
- To determine the correct spelling.
- To determine whether or not a word should be capitalized.
- To determine how a word should be divided at the end of a line.
- To determine correct pronunciation.
- To determine whether or not a hyphen should be used in a compound word.

Dictionary Content. In addition, the dictionary also has a list of common foreign words and phrases. It is obvious that

much of the material that a report writer must master is to be found in a dictionary. The excellent report writer has the ability to select the exact word. No one can buy, sell, write letters, use the telephone, give orders, make a speech, or prepare a report, except by using words. Everything else being equal, the individual who knows the most about words will be the most successful in his occupation. *To develop the mastery of language necessary to use the exact word, the writer must know how to use the dictionary skillfully and he must use it frequently.*

The dictionary is a tool that will always be needed by the educated person. As a matter of fact, the better educated a person is, the more likely he is to refer frequently to a dictionary.

Word Division. One use of the dictionary mentioned above is for determining the correct place to divide a word at the end of a line. Since more errors are made in dividing words at the end of a line than in spelling them, capitalizing them, or in using them, it is important that the report writer learn to divide words correctly. Below are eight rules for dividing words at the end of a line:

- Never divide a word of one syllable.
- Do not divide a word of four letters.
- A one-letter syllable at the beginning of a word, or a one or two-letter syllable at the end of a word must not be separated from the rest of the word. (Examples: "about" not "a-bout"; "ready" not "read-y.")
- When a word containing three or more syllables is to be divided at a one-letter syllable, the one-letter syllable should be written on the first line rather than on the second. (Example: "maga-zine" not "mag-azine.")
- When a word is to be divided at a point where two vowels that are pronounced separately come together, these vowels should be divided into separate syllables. (Example: "continu-ation" not "continua-tion.") Note that this rule is an exception to the one stated above.
- A syllable that does not contain a vowel must not be separated from the remainder of the word. (Example: "wouldn't" not "would-n't.")
- Avoid dividing hyphenated words, such as "self-conscious," except at the hyphen.
- When a final consonant is doubled before a suffix, the additional consonant should be placed with the suffix. (Example: "run-ning" not "runn-ing.")

When in doubt about the proper syllable makeup of a word, consult the dictionary. Do not guess at the division of a word.

SUMMATION

English grammar essentials, such as correct punctuation, capitalization, syllabication, and correct use of numbers and abbreviations, are all part of the skills that the successful report writer has at his disposal. The beginning public-service worker is well advised to obtain a list of the words that appear frequently in his job family, or are a part of the technical or professional vocabulary, and memorize them. Common report forms should be reviewed and used as a guide for making observations and examinations of data when preparing to write a report. The writer may find that maps are needed to show geographical location, charts to visualize statistical data, or tables to determine relationships. Clarity will be the guide dictating how any idea may best be communicated to the reader.

In conclusion, the report writer must know what details to look for, must select the proper format for the report, must select the best possible words that do not have any emotional connotations and build them into short, effective sentences. Paragraphs must be developed by the writer around the central thoughts, leaving nothing to be imagined by the reader. The importance of word relationship and idea sequence is crucial.

Remember, a report is written to express an idea, not to impress a superior.

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

- Write a report explaining a career choice.
- View the six filmstrips, *Constructing Reports*, and evaluate the information they contain.
- Complete the matching vocabulary exercise prepared by the teacher for the occupation group selected by the student.
- Demonstrate a knowledge of the active and passive verbs in report writing by changing a report prepared by the teacher from the passive voice to the active.
- List three words having unfavorable connotations and explain how they could be particularly embarrassing to the writer.
- Identify the type of paragraph development used in each of the paragraphs which the teacher has prepared.
- Keep a notebook for discussion notes and class handouts.
- Take a diagnostic test, and complete remedial lessons, if needed, on punctuation and capitalization.
- Complete a dictionary assignment.

- Prepare reports describing the events in a simulated classroom interruption.
- Prepare a group report on the students' attendance in class, citing the percentage of absentees each day. Compare Monday to Tuesday, etc., and list the frequency of reasons for the absences.
- Evaluate the reports prepared by the class members in the above two activities.

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

- Prepare a bulletin board display illustrating the components of a good report.
- Review the materials in the local audiovisual library to locate teaching aids that are readily available.
- Make arrangements for showing the movie, *Writing a Good Paragraph*.
- Make arrangements to show the filmstrips in the series: *Constructing Reports*. (6 filmstrips)
- Prepare discussion notes on the types of reports, and the importance and purpose of each type.
- Collect examples of reports from the eight job families in the Public Service Occupation area.
- Prepare a vocabulary list of technical and professional words from each of the public-service entry-level job families.
- Prepare matching exercises for the vocabulary words and their definitions for each of the major job groups.
- Prepare overlays for use with an overhead projector illustrating good and bad reports.
- Prepare a list of sentences containing passive-voice verbs which the students are to change to active verbs.
- Prepare a discussion of word meanings and emphasize the importance of connotation.
- Obtain or write, and present, paragraphs illustrating the seven ways of developing a paragraph.
- Plan simulated situations from which the students will have to prepare reports.
- Prepare a handout for students containing suggestions for the use of numbers in reports.
- Prepare discussion notes for the use of abbreviations in reports.
- Prepare a diagnostic quiz on punctuation marks and capitalization.

- Discuss and test the use of the dictionary in the classroom.

- Prepare a student handout on the eight rules for dividing words at the end of a line.

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Unit 4

BASIC RECORD KEEPING

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Unit 4

BASIC RECORD KEEPING

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

1. Ability to identify the characteristics of an effective record keeping system.
2. Ability to explain the need for accurate, carefully maintained records in governmental agencies.
3. Ability to identify the types of records that a governmental agency would maintain.
4. Ability to develop a basic competence in alphabetical filing as well as an understanding of the variations in alphabetical filing rules and methods utilized in governmental agencies.
5. Ability to recognize and utilize the various systems of filing in addition to (or in conjunction with) the alphabetical system.
6. Ability to develop skill in finding information in office files, reference materials, and agency manuals.
7. Ability to develop a system of keeping track of the materials that have been removed from the files for study, microfilming, or updating.
8. Ability to describe the advantages of using microfilm for keeping records.
9. Ability to analyze and determine the proper use of automated record keeping systems, such as the computer.

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

From the birth certificate to the death certificate, everyone's

life is governed by records. The birth certificate verifies the individual's age, and will determine when he will enter public school, assume adult responsibilities and privileges, and be eligible to collect Social Security retirement benefits. School records will usually have direct bearing upon the individual's occupation. Federal and state income tax records will be established on the individual, as well as a record of marriage licenses, car licenses, driver's licenses. This list of records ends with a death certificate which will enable the deceased's heirs to obtain his life insurance.

Public-service agencies, like individuals, are governed to a large extent by records of various sorts. Almost everyone who works in the field of public service will come in contact with different kinds of records and materials. Even the new employee may actually be involved in record keeping activities, or he may need to know about where different public records are kept, or how to find the necessary materials to assist in record keeping.

There is one basic reason for keeping or filing any records of valuable material: so that they may be found quickly when needed. In addition, there are basically two reasons for wanting to find materials: to verify or prove past actions or events, and to obtain information needed for planning future activities.

Materials to be filed in many public-service agencies may include letters, reports of many kinds (technical, financial, client interactions, marketing analyses), memorandums, copies of communications, contracts and other legal documents, price lists, clippings from newspapers and other published materials, telegrams, checks, statements, receipts, bills, and other financial records.

One of the most important aspects of record keeping is the need for legibility. Records that cannot be read are of little value to anyone. Even though the intent of the author may be clear to himself, records are usually meant to be read by others as well. Often the author is not available for an on-the-spot interpretation. The importance of clear wording, good grammar, correct sentence structure, spelling, and proper paragraph structure cannot be overstated. For example, it is imperative that public-service financial records be kept accurately, clearly, and also legibly, since they are subject to audit at any time.

FILING SYSTEMS

Departmental Variances in Filing Needs. Governmental agencies have different departments, each with its various divisions,

and often, separate filing systems. For example the agency's personnel department might have its own filing system, divided intr such unique categories as:

- Assignments
- Classification
- Recruitment
- Training
- Separation

Other departments, sections, or divisions would very probably also have filing systems unique to their own needs.

Basic Considerations of Systems. Thus, an effective record keeping system is organized with the programs and functions of the agency kept in mind. The filing system should be as simple as possible, and with accessibility to all clerical workers and members of the professional staff who must use it. A procedure for the periodical removal and disposal or storage of inactive records should be established. One person should be assigned responsibility for the maintainance of the files, with several individuals familiar enough to provide service during emergencies or vacation periods.

Another consideration in establishing a filing system is the security of the storage area from fire and vandalism. For example, school records and draft records have been frequent targets of vandals in recent years.

Filing Procedures. The first step in filing is to separate the materials to be filed (such as applications or program cards) from other office materials, inspect them for completeness, and to then determine which type of filing fits the need of that particular project. Some agencies follow a policy of having the responsible party initial the papers, with notes (such as dates) on action completed, and indicating that they are ready for filing. If this is the procedure, filing clerks should first check for the required initials, then read or skim the contents, to assist him when he is later asked to recall important papers. The next step would be to index the material, by mentally classifying it for its method and place of filing.

The papers are then sorted. A device called an *alphabetizer* is normally used for this job. A sorter is a flat device that has a set of open pockets each overlapping the next. They help to keep the materials organized.

Manila folders are usually used to protect the papers. It is possible to obtain manila folders in various sizes, but the most common are letter size (8½ by 11 inches) and legal size (8½ by 13 inches). After the material has been filed into the cabinet, it is ready for future use.

Each file drawer should have sufficient guides or tabs to lead the eye to the desired section of the file quickly. The guide or tab may be:

- made of the material of the folder,
- made of celluloid or other plastic,
- made of metal with a plastic window.

An angular tab slants back so that a worker does not have to bend over to read captions in lower drawers.

Filing Methods. While much of the detail of modern record keeping is accomplished by the *memory banks* of computers, there still exists a need for the traditional method of filing certain papers in office files.

Filing Alphabetically. Since this is the case, it is important that all office employees should know at least the basic rules of *alphabetical filing*. Some of the most commonly used filing rules are listed below. With an understanding of these rules, the beginning public-service worker should be able to maintain at least a semblance of order in a filing system:

- File papers by the last name (surname).

  Example: Adams before Smith

- When the last names of two or more persons begin with the same first letter, look at the second letter in the names as your aid for selecting the name to be filed in front of the other. If the second letter is the same, then look at the third, and so on.

  Example: Jackson before James

- File "nothing" before "something."

  Example: Johns before Johnson

- If the last names (surnames) of two or more persons are the same, compare the first letters in the first names to help you decide the order of filing. If the first letters in the first names (given names) are the same, compare the second letters in the given names, and so forth.

  Example: Jones, James before Jones, John

- When a name contains a first name and a middle name or initial, consider the middle name or initial only if the surnames and the given names or initials are alike.

  Example: Peters, Anna Mae before Peters, Anna Maria

- The complete name of a person in a business name is consid-

ered in the same order as if it appeared by itself.

Example: Thomas, Robert H. Company

- Names of business firms which do not contain complete names of persons are filed according to their first words. If the first words are the same, the second words are considered, and so forth.

  Example: J & R Company before Johnson Supply Company

- There are many departments, bureaus, and offices in our Federal Government. When indexing any of these, U. S. Government comes first, followed by the department, bureau, or office.

- State, county, city, and other political subdivisions are indexed under the political subdivision, then under the principal word in the name of the department or office.

Although alphabetical filing is the primary type of filing the beginning public service worker will use, there are other methods of filing with which he should become familiar. These methods include systems for *numeric*, *subject*, and *geographic* filing:

Filing by the Numeric Method. *Numeric filing systems* are so-called because numbers are used as captions on the guide and folder tabs. Alphabetic systems are direct systems because a person can go directly to the file drawer and, by means of the name captions, file or find records. Numeric systems are indirect because, in most cases, before papers can be placed in or taken from the file drawer, the worker must refer to an alphabetic card index to find the number assigned to a name or subject.

Numeric filing systems can be used to advantage in many circumstances, such as

- where papers would group themselves around definite cases, contracts, or operations that are active for reasonably long but indefinite periods, and that require permanent and extensive cross reference;

- where a file is referred to by number rather than the name of the person involved; or

- in confidential situations where names can be concealed from those handling the files by the use of number captions.

In numeric filing, a number is assigned consecutively to each correspondent or subject that warrants an individual folder as these correspondents or subjects develop. A number once assigned is maintained until a correspondent no longer does busi-

ness with the agency or company, or a subject ceases to exist. After a specified period, the number may be reassigned. All papers pertaining to the correspondent or subject are placed in the individual folder bearing the number assigned to that correspondent or subject.

A numeric system cannot be operated without a card index that will identify the assigned numbers. Each card contains the name of a correspondent or subject and the number of the folder that has been assigned.

The Social Security system operated by the federal government is based on a numeric filing idea. Schools and colleges have long utilized student numbers, and recently began to use Social Security numbers as the student identification number. Welfare cases have numbers assigned to them and the record keeping is greatly simplified as a result of this means of control. The *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (DOT) assigns a number to all of the occupations listed.

Filing by Subject. *Subject filing* is the arrangement of records by names of topics or things rather than by names of people, companies, or locations. Government agencies might find it more convenient to use subject files for these purposes:

- to organize records that do not refer to the name of a person or organization;
- to organize correspondence that is more likely to be called for by its subject than by the name of the correspondent;
- to group records concerning the activities or products of an organization, such as advertising, sales, typewriters, adding machines, etc., so that all the records about one activity or product can be obtained immediately from the files, or
- to group together records that would otherwise fall into very small subdivisions.

Because subject files must meet the requirements of the individual situation, it is unlikely that any two subject files will be organized exactly the same. The nature of the concern would determine the main subject headings, and then subdivisions would be added as necessary.

Filing by Dewey Decimal System. The Dewey Decimal method of classifying information used in libraries, and familiar to most people, is a combination of the subject, numeric, and alphabetical filing systems.

Filing by Geographic Identities. *Geographic filing* relates to papers arranged in alphabetic order, with sub-listings by location, and then by name or subject. This method has particular advantage for those agencies in which the organization of files or records depends to a large degree on where things happened, or where they are located. As an example, police-department files would probably be organized first on the basis of geographic sections of the city, and then by number, subject, or by the name of the individual concerned in the file.

The specific geographic divisions used will be determined by the filing needs of the agency involved. The primary guides would bear the names of the most important geographic divisions occurring in the operations of the department. The secondary guides would then be used for subdivisions of the main geographic units, as well as for alphabetic sections of the geographic divisions and subdivisions.

MISCELLANEOUS OFFICE RECORDS

Although the type of records and/or the kind of record keeping would vary from office to office, students should be given an introduction to some of the basic records that most office workers would be required to keep, such as petty cash or revolving cash records, budget records, purchase requisitions, purchase orders, and reports.

The book *Clerical Record Keeping*, listed under "Resources" at the conclusion of this unit, gives a good summary of petty cash records. It provides a thorough study of the various forms that need to be filled out to keep a petty cash fund, and of the affiliated records. It also explains the roles of employees and employers in connection with the records.

The same source book gives a summary of budget records and purchase records. Although designed for the budget records of an individual or a family, the same principles could be utilized in setting up and in maintaining budget records for an office situation. The purchase records go into detail regarding such things as stock record cards, purchase requisition forms, record of goods expected forms, price quotation cards, purchase orders, purchase invoices, and the purchases journal. Although these are slanted toward the needs of a business, they provide an excellent background for understanding the agency's operations outlining its procedures and forms.

The average office worker should also be proficient in knowing how to keep a current and accurate account of the funds in the budget. Various manuals or methods are available which cover very adequately this area of operations.

Many public-service workers find themselves working with pay-

roll records. They must compute the wages from the time shown on time cards, figure gross wages, figure overtime, determine deductions for social security and income tax, and as a result, net pay. The cumulative employee wage records must be kept current, and such forms and reports as withholding tax forms must be prepared at the end of the year.

DATA PROCESSING

Data processing frightens some people. Complicated equipment and procedures that few people can understand are the first things envisioned by the great mass of the population. In its simplest terms, however, data processing is not complicated. Data (which, as you know, is a plural type of word) means unorganized bits of knowledge; processing means to manipulate or to handle. Broadly speaking, therefore, *data processing is the systematizing of many facts into useful organized information.*

A necessary part of the data processing done by a governmental employee is the placing of facts and information into the appropriate order, and recording them in such an organized manner that they can then be readily retrievable, or found. The ability to organize and file information has no value if the ability does not also provide for a system to readily find the information, and then to put it to use.

Obtaining and Recording the Data. Every governmental agency, regardless of its size, must process data in order to provide operational information for both the internal needs of management and the external needs of the public. The information provided and the method used to obtain information will vary with the type and size of the agency. The method used will depend upon the volume of data to be processed, the time available for processing the data, and the amount of money that can be spent.

Recording on Forms. Forms are often used to assist in recording data, which facilitates the use of the data in other operations. They are used to communicate data to other individuals or departments; to expedite the storing of data; to increase speed and accuracy in classifying, sorting, and computing data; and to assist in summarizing data so that the information can be easily read. All forms used should be designed to facilitate the processing of data to meet the specific needs of the agency that is using them.

Forms are by no means the only mechanical devices used by record keepers. Those in charge of the handling of forms,

and responsible for the information contained on them, have devised and utilized literally hundreds of different methods whereby their work could be done more rapidly and more efficiently.

Mechanical Recorders. Typewriters, imprinting devices, computers, check protectors, time clocks, copying equipment, and duplicating equipment are all means of recording data by the use of mechanical equipment. Various types of adding machines (10-key, full board, etc.) and calculators (rotary, printing, key-driven, or electronic) are machines that help us to compute data more quickly and accurately. The cash register, that is used almost everywhere goods or services are traded for money, is a mechanism combining the functions of recording, computing, and retrieving essential data.

Recording for Ease of Retrieving. The more sophisticated types of data processing equipment incorporate such recording and retrieval aids as punched cards, punched tape, edge-punched cards, and magnetic tape. A brief summary of each of the above will follow.

Recording on Punched Cards. Punched-card data processing displays the following characteristics:

- Data are represented by holes punched into cards. Each hole has a meaning, and groups of holes represent words or numbers.
- The data are processed automatically be machines that can *read* the holes in the cards, and follow directions as indicated by the position of the holes.
- The results of the processing are reported in printed documents or other desired forms of output.

Punched card data processing has these definite advantages as compared to manual or mechanical data processing:

- Data can be recorded once in a card, and is then readily available to be processed automatically through machines.
- A large volume of repetitive transactions can be processed in a relatively short time with a minimum of human effort. Once the data are recorded in the punched cards, the only human effort required to process the data is to operate the machines and to carry the cards from machine to machine.
- A high degree of accuracy is assured once the data has been punched and verified. Since the data do not have to be

copied over and over again, there is no chance of error if the data have been accurately punched into the cards initially.

- Many reports can be produced quickly. The punched cards can be manipulated in many ways to prepare a great variety of reports that provide management with the information it needs to make decisions.

Even though punched card equipment is used, there will still be a need for keeping some records manually and mechanically. More than one data processing method is needed to provide the variety of informational reports required by management and the public.

Recording on Punched Tape. Punched tape, like punched cards, contains data that machines can read. However, punched tape differs from cards in two ways:

- instead of using punched card code, the common machine language is *channel code*, which is based on the *binary number* system, and
- instead of recording data in cards, the data are recorded continuously on tape.

Thus punched tape is similar to a group of punched cards joined end to end. Approximately one inch wide, and wound on reels, the tape can contain ten alphabetic and/or numeric characters per inch.

With punched tape, data are coded in the form of holes punched into vertical columns. The horizontal rows on the tape are called channels. Punched tape may have five, six, seven, or eight channels, plus a series of small holes to guide the tape through a machine. Except for the differences pointed out, it is very nearly the same as the punched card.

Recording on Edge-Punched Cards. An edge-punched card is a card that has data punched in channel code along one or both edges and/or across the ends. The card can be punched and read by some of the same equipment that processes punched tape. The data punched into the card is also printed as a "hard-copy" record directly on the card. Edge-punched cards are used in place of punched tape when frequent reference must be made to stored data.

Recording on Magnetic Tape. Although punched cards and punched tape are important methods of recording and retrieving data for certain types of automatic data processing systems, they have

serious drawbacks for computer systems. Electronic computers operate at such high speeds that data in punched cards and punched tape often cannot be read into the system fast enough to keep up with the speed of the computer. For this reason, magnetic tape has been developed as a high speed input/output medium for computer systems.

The magnetic tape used in data processing is similar to that used in ordinary tape recorders. It has a plastic base which is coated with a metallic oxide. Data are recorded on the tape in the form of invisible magnetized spots placed in vertical columns. The spots, which are called *bits*, serve the same function as the holes in punched tape. Bits in particular combinations are used as codes for letters, numbers, and special characters, just as holes in particular combinations serve as codes on punched tape. Magnetic tape, like punched tape, is arranged in channels.

The data on magnetic tape can be erased, and the tape can be reused continuously. The amount of data that can be recorded on a reel of tape depends upon the closeness of the recorded bits of data. This closeness of the recorded data is called *tape density*. In a typical system that records at a density of 200 characters per inch, a 2,400-foot reel of tape can hold the same amount of data as 25,000 eighty-column punched cards. Thus, it is apparent that magnetic tape has a very real advantage over punched cards and punched tape in storing data.

Recording by Microfilm. Automated record keeping will be widely used in the future. However, there will always be a lot of bulky papers to be sorted in inactive files. This gets to be a problem for many agencies. The best solution for this problem is to microfilm the records. It is estimated that about 98 percent of the filing space can be saved by microfilming. Approximately three thousand letters can be microfilmed on a single 100-foot roll of 16mm film.

An agency may safeguard its records when microfilming by making two rolls of film at the same time, using one film for reference and storing the second roll in a fireproof vault. Each agency would develop a cataloging system enabling the rapid locating of information that has been microfilmed.

PROCESSING THE DATA

Electronic-Data Computers. The computer offers several distinct advantages over other automatic data processing equipment. In electronic-data processing the data is processed by electronic impulses passing through electrical circuits. Since electronic impulses travel at speeds near the speed of light,

electronic-data processing is much faster than punched card and punched tape data processing, which use equipment operated by gears and moving parts.

A computer can automatically put data into storage in its *memory banks*, can hold the data there, and then can retrieve the data whenever instructed to do so, without human intervention and at electronic speed.

In a computer system, a series of repetitive operations can be performed without human intervention and at high speed. The computer does this by following a series of detailed instructions, called a *program*, which is stored in the computer itself. This stored program tells the computer what data to process, what operations to perform with the data, and what to do with the results; for example, to *store* or *print* the processed information.

Computer Possibilities and Limitations. In addition to doing clerical and accounting work, a computer can also make routine decisions; that is, it can make a choice among alternatives. It can also take alternative courses of action. The computer itself, for example, can select which part of the program to follow, an operation known as *branching*. A computer can also repeat a sequence of instructions; this is known as *looping*.

But, no matter how advanced, or how sophisticated its electronics, a computer can work only with the facts and figures that are fed into it. Obviously then, if wrong information is fed into the computer, wrong results will come out of the machine. Even though the actual computational time is short, the material must be programmed into the machine.

CONTROL SYSTEMS

Surveys of files show that from 1 to 5 percent of records are misfiled, and half of those misfiled are never found. A misfile rate of 1 percent is usually considered normal, but the goal of a government agency is always no misfiled materials. The records of an arrest, a prisoner, a student's academic record are too important to be lost and, if they should be, the undermining of public confidence in the department would severely weaken its effectiveness.

Even though the greatest possible care has been taken, a paper will occasionally be missing when needed. A few clues, therefore, for conducting systematic searches for missing data may not be inappropriate:

- Look through the folder thoroughly. The paper may have been placed out of order or may be sticking to another paper.

- Look between and under folders. Sometimes a paper is mistakenly placed between folders instead of into the proper folder, and subsequently, is pushed or slips to the bottom of the tray.
- Look under similar names or headings.
- Look for transposed names. A paper may be filed under a first or second name instead of the surname, or it may be filed under the subject's maiden name.
- Check the "out" folders or substitution cards to see who used it last.
- Look in the *To be filed*, *Pending*, *Suspense*, or *Being microfilmed* file trays or lists.
- Check for cross references or related material to see if the paper has been filed there.

If, after a thorough search, the paper is still not located, alert the other workers in your office and make a note to place in the file to prevent someone else from making an extensive search. However, in a well-organized agency, it is seldom that records are lost.

Much time may be saved by establishing and using a control system. If a control system is used, the location of every piece of information is known at all times. There are several major methods of charging out materials; such as these:

- Use of an *out guide;* a stiff guide with the word *out* written on the top. It has a pocket on the front in which may be placed a requisition slip indicating the user, date, and material taken.
- Insertion of an *out folder* in the position of the borrowed folder; this is used to store new material until the regular one is returned.
- Placing of *substitution cards* in regular folder to indicate that material has been removed.

When material has been returned to the files, the out guides, out folders, or substitution cards should be removed from the file. The notations should be crossed out to indicate that the borrower has returned the material.

SUMMARY

Record keeping is an important function of every governmental agency. How it is done will be determined to a large extent by the function of the agency, and the manner in which its records will be used. The manuals published by the agency will usually have detailed instructions covering maintaining

of records; however, the people involved need to completely know the procedures, so that time is not wasted consulting the manual everytime something is to be filed.

Anyone can stick papers into a file cabinet; however, responsibility does not end there. *The record must be available when needed.* This demands a thorough knowledge of the steps to follow in preparing materials to be filed and the various types of filing and record keeping systems.

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

- Prepare discussion notes on the characteristics of an excellent record keeping system.
- Prepare an outline of the various types of classifying information for filing or storage.
- Prepare an outline of the rules for alphabetizing material.
- Alphabetize the set of index cards prepared by the teacher.
- Prepare an outline of the procedures for establishing or using a numerical file.
- Each student should prepare an organizational or functional chart of the department in which he wishes to work and indicate which records would need to be kept in each of the areas on the chart.
- Visit a governmental agency and prepare a class report on the record system used. Be sure to note such special problems as classifying and keeping records on fingerprints for future reference.
- View and discuss the films *Filing Procedures in Business*, *Introduction to Automatic Data Processing*, and *Data Processing: Introductory Principles*.
- View and discuss the filmstrips *Keeping Records Up to Date*, *The Opening Phase of Bookkeeping*, and *Files and Filing*.
- Study record keeping and data processing on your own by reading programmed instruction books such as *Paperwork Management* and *Presentation of Data*.

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

- Prepare a bulletin board illustration of the various types of filing.
- Obtain or prepare a set of index cards of the names of individuals, various governmental agencies, and departments which may be used to illustrate filing procedures.
- Make a study of the records kept at the local governmental agencies and prepare material for a class discussion on the why's, how's, and procedures used by the various departments.

- Make arrangements to visit a governmental office that utilizes all of the various record keeping devices, such as traditional files, microfilming, and automated devices or computers.
- Prepare a class discussion on the rules for the alphabetical filing of material.
- Obtain the budgetary forms from a governmental office and duplicate some of the simpler forms.
- Prepare some simple budgetary problems. Let the class work on them in small groups.
- Make arrangements to show the films *Filing Procedures in Business*, *Introduction to Automatic Data Processing*, and *Data Processing: Introductory Principles*. Lead a class discussion afterward.
- Prepare a class discussion on the rules for the alphabetical filing of material.
- Make arrangements with the school librarian to demonstrate cross filing for students.
- Encourage the students to study on their own by reading programmed instruction books on record keeping and data processing. Examples of programmed instruction books shown in the resource section of this unit are *Paperwork Management* and *Presentation of Data*.
- Make arrangements to show the filmstrips *Keeping Records Up to Date*, *The Opening Phase of Bookkeeping*, and *Files and Filing*.
- Arrange for a class debate on *the advantages and disadvantages of using automated record keeping systems*.
- Prepare discussion notes on what to do if some filed matter is lost.
- Prepare group activities centered around the problem of keeping inactive files.

RESOURCES

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Unit 5

GOOD GROOMING

Here are the contents of Unit 5 of the Common Core group. We suggest a careful reading of it before you read the text.

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Unit 5
GOOD GROOMING

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

1. Ability to appreciate the importance of good health habits.
2. Ability to understand the importance and relationship of good grooming habits to gainful employment.
3. Ability to dress in a manner suitable for obtaining and holding a job.
4. Ability to evaluate good grooming skills in relation to successful employment in public-service occupations.
5. Ability, with good grooming, to form positive attitudes toward personal pride and self-respect.
6. Ability to demonstrate a desire to improve personal appearance.
7. Ability to realize that poor posture affects both appearance and health.
8. Ability to accept positive suggestions on appropriate dress and cleanliness.

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

Appearance is important in applying for a job and for working successfully on the job. This is especially true in public-service occupations. One's self-image is usually related to physical appearance.

Young workers are often self-conscious and lack a feeling of security. Their concern over their appearance directly affects their poise, self-confidence, and feeling of well-being.

Neatness and grooming are important for many reasons, but most of all for the feeling of personal pride and self-respect that they give the individual. These feelings are often reflected in general appearance, and may be the cause for vocational success or failure.

RELATIONSHIP OF GROOMING AND EMPLOYMENT

The pursuit of a career is one of the most important goals during an individual's life. Good grooming is an important step in the achievement of this goal. Good grooming affects appearance and vitality. An individual will be judged by the way he appears. For greater success in life, both on and off the job, it is important that a good impression is made.

When applying for a job, as well as in dealing with the public, the first impression is important. The first, and often the most lasting, impression an employer gets of the applicant is a visual one. Care in all areas of grooming is necessary to give a total picture of being well-groomed. *The individual who works at being well-groomed will have his appearance working for him.*

Employers expect their employees to present a neat and clean appearance at all times. The people who do the hiring must keep in mind the image of the governmental agency they represent. If a person is hired, he is considered a part of that agency. If a person dresses poorly and is not groomed properly, or has poor personal habits, he will reflect poorly upon the agency. It must be remembered that governmental agencies view their employees in terms of public relations. A poor representative of the agency or department can mean a loss of time and efficiency. In order to keep a job, a good appearance must be maintained, especially when serving the public.

In the employment interview, it does not matter what other qualities and abilities the person possesses; if the applicant does not measure up to the appearance standards set by the employer, he will be given no further consideration. Employment personnel point out that many people seeking a position lose out on this point alone - appearance. In the case of a public-service worker, this can be especially important. The agency managers realize that their workers will be dealing with the public, and that appearance will be a key to success of the agency as well as the employee. This is one of the major reasons for the personal interview required before employment in almost all public-service occupational fields. The moments which are spent in the employment interview are very important. The applicant has been given only a short time in which to sell himself and his services to the employer (sometimes represented by several people). No matter how im-

pressive his letters or application, the physical appearance and the words used will either get the applicant a job or will bring defeat to his purpose. (See INTERVIEWING SKILLS, Unit 7.)

RELATIONSHIP OF GOOD GROOMING AND GOOD HABITS

Good grooming, which is reflected in appearance, is dependent upon good habits. The employee who has developed good grooming habits may find that they make the difference when job advancement is being considered. Employers may use personal appearance as a sample of the kind of work that is done by an employee. In most cases a person who keeps himself clean and neat is the kind of person who will take his time to do a job well.

Self-concept

Self-concept is defined as the way an individual sees himself. The self-concept develops in response to the reactions of others, which in turn are a direct response to the individual's self-concept. The self-concept reflects how an individual feels about himself. Like any feeling, it may be partially unconscious, or based upon unconscious needs. The more realistic the self-concept, the better an individual will be able to control his personal relationships. A realistic self-concept may be developed by making an objective self-evaluation during which habits, attitudes, goals, interests, and aptitudes are analyzed.

Honesty in Self-Concept. Others may not see an individual as he sees himself; therefore, he should strive to relate his positive self-concept to them. By being honest when looking at himself, an individual may see things that he will want to change. When he does make changes in his self-concept by changing his appearance to others, he will build a healthy self-concept and a feeling of adequacy.

Each person is a special individual with his or her own unique qualities. Making the most of one's own special qualities is a key to success and happiness. An acceptance of the responsibility for one's health and appearance is mandatory. Care of one's skin and complexion, hair, teeth, breath, and posture is essential to a healthy self-concept.

A successful employee must evaluate himself and his own special qualities, emphasizing his assets. He should determine to make the most of his own special qualities and to minimize his liabilities. There are certain personal characteristics which are unchangeable, such as height, build, color and tone

of skin, texture of hair, and features - deepset eyes, big ears, large nose, dimples. However, looks may be changed by determining the best features, and utilizing the appropriate aids to make the most of these features. Each individual should set up his own self-improvement course in order to present a clean, neat appearance.

Positive Attitude Required in Self-Concept. Teachers may help students to change poor attitudes by encouraging them to adopt positive outlooks. A person must determine to make the most of every situation. Each experience can be as exciting and rewarding, or as dull or boring as a person makes it. Personality can also be improved by exercising enthusiasm. Students can be encouraged to give a little more of themselves by being the first to smile, to speak, or to offer to do a job.

People who will be working in public-service occupations cannot know what problems they might face in the future, and to prepare to meet these problems, they need to develop a greater understanding of themselves and a feeling of adequacy. They must attempt to discover their own interests, strengths, and abilities, and begin to understand how these traits are related to establishing personal and vocational goals. *Through self-understanding, the workers will develop a sense of personal growth and worth.* This sense of personal worth will usually manifest itself in a neat appearance.

Good Habits of Health

Good health is the result of cleanliness, proper nutrition, care of the body, and careful grooming. Physical changes of adolescence (the period of several years between puberty and early adulthood) are natural, and this calls for accepting responsibility for the care of one's health and appearance. It is a period of especially rapid growth, in which there are varying rates of change for different individuals. During this period of rapid change, glandular activities produce a rapid growth spurt, sexual maturation, emotional changes, and changes in eating and other living habits.

Good health habits are important during this period of physical and emotional change. Here is a list of good habits, with indication of their importance:

- *Proper Diet* - The right kinds of foods contribute to energy and to healthy blood; helps to build muscles and bones; and to provide vitamins which protect against disease.
- *Proper Rest* - The human body needs an adequate amount of sleep, although the amount depends on the individual - eight hours is the general average for the adolescent.

- *Exercise* - Exercise helps keep the body in good condition; aids blood circulation, breathing, digestion, and metabolism.
- *Proper Elimination* - This rids body of waste and harmful substances.
- *Drinking Enough Water* - Water aids in the digestion and absorption of foods, the carrying of foods to the body tissues, and the removal of body wastes; it also plays a basic part in regulating body temperature.
- *Cleanliness* - Dirt is the breeding place of disease and germs.

Good health habits go hand-in-hand with good grooming habits; both of these are essential for attractiveness. Good health habits affect overall general health and tend to improve the mental outlook and capacity for work. The result is energy and enthusiasm for greater job efficiency with less absenteeism.

Good Habits of Cleanliness

Cleanliness is important for social success as well as for health; cleanliness is imperative in order to make a good first impression as well as a lasting impression. Teachers realize that cleanliness may require a habit change; therefore, more than lecturing will be required.

The acquiring of a job may be the motivating factor required for the adoption of habits involving cleanliness as an indication of the quality of work to be produced by an employee. Students must be made to realize that cleanliness will be a large factor upon which their success in public service may depend.

Personal Grooming. Many students simply do not practice habits of cleanliness because they are unaware of how to achieve good personal grooming. Others do not have the facilities for keeping clean, and there are some who do not care. A teacher must give consideration to these facts when developing a grooming program for students.

General cleanliness can be achieved through a routine of regular bathing, care of skin and complexion, care of the teeth and breath, and for boys, may require daily shaving.

It is desirable, under normal conditions, to bathe regularly. It not only cleanses the body, but also serves several other functions. Bathing or showering acts as a tension release, body stimulant, or body regulator. The activity of the sweat glands, together with the bacteria present on the skin, produces perspiration wetness and subsequent odor. The offensive

odor of bacteria may be controlled by using an underarm deodorant or antiperspirant. Antibacterial soaps also help combat this perspiration odor.

Care of Skin and Nails. Changes in the oil glands located on the face during the adolescent period of growth produce excess oils which contribute to the formation of acne. The face requires special washing so skin problems may be minimized. There are many excellent types of soap or lotion available for care of skin and complexion; the wise person will make himself aware of those available to him.

Nail care is often neglected by the adolescent; this, too, should be included as part of one's program for the achievement of personal cleanliness.

Care of the Mouth and Teeth. Clean teeth and fresh breath are important to an individual, both physically and socially. The variety of nourishing foods which promote general good health, also help in developing and maintaining healthy teeth. Teeth should be brushed in the morning, evening, and as soon as possible after eating. If brushing isn't possible, a food which has a detergent or cleaning action should be eaten, or water can be swished in the mouth. This is essential for the prevention of tooth decay and bad breath.

Toothpastes aid the toothbrush in cleaning food debris from the teeth and areas between the teeth. Dental floss is also helpful in removing small food particles. Toothpaste removes unsightly film, called *plac*, which tends to accumulate on the teeth and aids in the dislodging and destroying of odor-causing and decay-causing bacteria. The brushing of teeth should be done in the proper manner, as indicated by your dentist or school nurse, for greater efficiency. Attractive teeth and healthy gums are very important to one's overall health, grooming, and personal appearance; however, to have attractive teeth, a regular program of dental care should be followed in order to maintain this attractiveness.

Because cleanliness is a personal matter, chances are that one who is offensive will not be told such by others. This person may simply be avoided or talked about without his knowing. In either case, noticeable uncleanliness may jeopardize not only his personal reputation, but also his employment.

Good Habits of Hair Care. The grooming of hair can be a tremendous contribution to the overall appearance of an individual, particularly if the hair is:

- clean and lustrous,
- free from dandruff,
- becoming in style,
- neatly combed.

Care of the Hair. Care of hair should include a good haircut. Brushing is good for males as well as females. It distributes the natural oils and, like exercise, it stimulates circulation. Massaging maintains good circulation through the scalp tissues and about the hair roots.

Unclean hair has a noticeable odor; therefore, it should be shampooed as needed for cleanliness, but frequency of shampooing depends on the individual's hair and the hair style. Hair needs should be determined and a choice of shampoo should reflect these needs. A practice should be made of cleaning brushes and combs when hair is shampooed.

Many of these hair problems, which apply to both men and women can, and should, be dealt with, and controlled, to the extent possible, for best appearance and health:

- Dry hair
- Split and dry ends
- Oily hair
- Fine, limp hair
- Very thick hair
- Slow growing hair
- Thin hair
- Falling hair
- "Yellowed" or grey hair
- Dandruff

Hair Styling. Hair styles will depend not only on what is fashionable, but also on what is becoming to the individual. The proper choice of a style can be an asset to personal appearance. Hair styles are most becoming when the shape of the face,

- oval,
- round,
- square,
- long,
- heart-shaped,

is considered, for proper balance and proportion.

Each face shape is enhanced when a hair style which is most flattering to that shape is worn. Styling aids, such as permanents and hair sprays, can be used to aid in the achievement of good grooming.

Extreme styles for girls and length for boys are usually unacceptable by public-service or other employers. Excessive hair arrangements should, therefore, be avoided. Students must be aware of their own appearance and how their hair will "tell" something about them. Employees in public-service oc-

cupations must be conscious of the visual cues they give about themselves.

Good Habits of Posture

Posture is the foundation of one's appearance, and has a definite influence on the impression he makes. Poor posture is unbecoming and unhealthy; good posture helps to develop poise and improves body functioning. Well-fitted clothing and shoes help to maintain posture through body balance.

The outline, following, indicates the basis for good standing and sitting posture. These general "guidelines" would be of assistance in acquiring a healthy and attractive posture.

Good sitting posture is achieved by these habits:

- Sit back so that hips touch back of chair.
- Keep feet flat on floor.
- Sit tall.
- Keep chest out, with neck and head in line with upper back.
- When writing, lean forward from the hips, maintaining the correct alignment of the back, neck and head.

Good standing posture is attained through consistent attention to these details:

- Keep feet parallel and slightly apart, with toes pointed straight ahead.
- Stand with knees easy, not bent or forced back.
- Hold abdomen in by contraction of abdominal muscles.
- Keep back as flat as possible.
- Stand with hips firm and tucked under body.
- Keep shoulders relaxed and down, shoulder blades pressing slightly together.,
- Be proud, stand with head high, chin slightly in, and back of neck pushed slightly backward.
- Keep weight evenly distributed on each foot, and most of the body weight on the balls of your feet.

Posture will affect a person's appearance, the way he feels, his health, and his job efficiency. It may be accepted by an employer as an overt demonstration of an employee's willingness to work.

RELATIONSHIP OF DRESS AND SUCCESS

Clothing is a means of communication. The first visual impression of a person is based almost 90 percent on the appearance of his clothing. Students, employees, and all others need to develop an awareness of the necessity for neat, clean, and well-fitted clothing for job success. Some individuals lack the ability to choose styles which are appropriate for their jobs.

Trends in color and style have changed drastically and will continue to change; therefore, there exists a need to help people develop good taste in dress. The public-service employee must have, and put to practice, a knowledge of pleasing color combinations and appropriate styles. While the relationship between clothing management and appearance is obvious, many workers fail to realize the impact that it has upon job efficiency. Inappropriate dress may be an office distraction, or may even prevent getting the job in the beginning.

Common Sense in Clothing Selection

Common sense is the major factor in deciding what clothing is appropriate for the job interview, as well as the job itself. In order not to detract from one's self, conservative and tasteful clothing should be chosen. The type of clothing which will be worn on the job should also be worn for the interview, except when a uniform or special protective clothing is required. Outer winter garments should not be worn in the presence of the interviewer.

Personal comfort must also be considered when choosing clothing. It is wise for a person to dress in a manner which allows him to forget his clothing so that attention can be given to more important matters.

Students should learn what is suitable to wear for every occasion; clothes worn to a party or to school may be conspicuous when worn on the job. A large wardrobe does not insure that a person is well-groomed; the choice of what is worn is the determining factor.

Criteria for Wardrobe Selection

Attention to the following data (given in outline form) may be useful in acquiring the ability to choose appropriate dress:

Remember elements in design:

- Color
- Texture
- Line
- Shape

These elements should be harmonious or mutually complementary.

Remember principles in design:

- Unity
- Dominance
- Proportion
- Balance
- Contrast
- Rhythm

These principles largely determine the appropriateness of a particular style of dress.

Pay attention to lines:

- Vertical
- Horizontal
- Curved
- Diagonal

The type of lines selected as basic to clothing styles should be proportionate to the other elements of design and the shape of the individual's figure.

Consider figure features:

Pay attention to problems of different figure types, and coordinate features with the elements and principles of good design.

People come in different sizes and shapes. These differences should be considered, and used to the individual's advantage in selection of a wardrobe.

Care of Clothing

Clothes should be kept clean and well-pressed. It is of little importance whether clothes are new or old; however, it makes considerable difference if they are unclean. It is not necessary nor required that a great deal of money be spent on clothing; but inexpensive neatness can mean the difference between getting and keeping a job, or losing it.

Under special conditions of working, the employer may give a clothing allowance to the employee for purchase of clothing for use on the job, and some employers may reimburse the employee for clothing purchased for special use. Many jobs require uniforms, and some employers will furnish and launder them. When a uniform is to be worn, care must be taken to insure that it is clean and pressed, and that all the accessories are in order. It is important to always have an extra uniform ready if something should happen to the one being worn.

Appropriate Dress Helps on the Job

The standards set by the particular public-service agency should be a guide when considering clothing and accessories. For example, agencies may have regulations against wearing of mini-skirts in the office. Necklaces, rings, bracelets, may present a hazard on the job in that they could get caught in the equipment.

Good clothing management can have an effect on job success in its ability to promote promptness and neatness on the job. The prearranging of clothing can save time.

A person who is dressed appropriately will fit well into the working situation and will have a personal feeling of well-being which will be reflected in his successful employment.

SUMMATION

Acquiring and keeping a job, whether in public-service or some other occupation, is one of the most important goals of any individual. How he sees himself, that is, his self-concept, influences how he looks and how others see him. In applying for a job, a person has only a few minutes to present himself. In those few minutes, the employer forms an impression. For greater success in life, it is important that a good impression be made. Good grooming affects appearance and vitality and will help to make that good impression.

In order to be a well-groomed individual, one must practice good health habits, such as proper diet, rest, and exercise, drinking sufficient water, elimination of body waste, and cleanliness. Cleanliness is a basis for good grooming. It is desirable to bathe as regularly as possible, and give special care to complexion, nails, teeth, and hair. Hair should be properly cut and extreme styles should be avoided.

Whether on the job or looking for a job, an individual should wear clean, neat, well-fitted clothes. They should be comfortable so that he does not have to be concerned about how he looks or feels and is free to think about more important things. It is also important that an employee comply with the standards set by the agency for which he works in the matter of dress. In addition, the foundation of a person's appearance is his posture. Good posture helps to develop poise and has influence on the impression one makes.

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

- View pictures of job applicants and select the ones that you would hire for positions of: social worker, teacher's assistant, recreational aide, secretary, employment counselor, forestry aide, fireman. Discuss the reason for each selection.
- Discuss personal experiences related to poor grooming and wrong first impressions.
- Prepare checklists for phases of grooming.
- Set up a self-improvement program which focuses on a trait for improvement in grooming.

- After viewing the filmstrip, *Grooming for Boys and Girls*, list "habits now" and "habits to improve." Write out a plan on how to improve grooming habits.
- View the film *A Time and a Place* and write comments on how appearance affects behavior for discussion after the film.
- Submit questions on good grooming skills for class discussion.
- Participate in a student panel moderated by the school nurse or physician on health habits for teenagers.
- Discuss effects of rest, relaxation, and hygiene on job efficiency.
- Discuss in small groups the effect of proper and improper diet on health, the way we look, the way we feel, the way we act.
- Discuss, "How it feels to work or sit near someone who isn't clean."
- Role-play a situation in which long hair would make a difference, as for instance, getting or not getting a job.
- Bring in pictures of attractive hair styles for display.
- Discuss the effect of posture on a person's appearance and the way he feels, and on his health and job efficiency.
- List various types of job families in public service and the particular type of grooming practices required for each.
- View pictures of employees on various jobs, and discuss types or appearance of clothing worn.
- Listen to your local school principal or a personnel officer from a local public-service agency speak on what is expected of a prospective employee.
- Write an essay on the following sentence: "A first-class appearance is a letter of introduction you can write for yourself."

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

- Prepare for discussion, a series of pictures of job applicants, demonstrating such various personal appearances as:

  Man with three days' growth of beard,
  Man with open collar and tie hanging loose,
  Lady in business suit; in formal wear,
  Man with long hair and sport shirt,
  Man in neat, clean clothes, shaven,
  Girl in a mini-skirt or bare midriff,
  Girl in pants suit or simple dress,
  Boy in faded blue jeans and sweatshirt,
  Boy in sport shirt and casual pants.

- Encourage students to discuss personal experiences related to poor grooming and wrong first impressions.
- Set up a checklist for all phases of grooming.
- Organize the showing of the filmstrip *Grooming for Boys and Girls* and discuss the improvement of grooming habits.
- Supervise the setting up of programs which focus on traits for self-improvement.
- Arrange to have the school nurse or physician moderate a student panel on health habits for teenagers.
- Lead a discussion on how rest, relaxation, and hygiene affect job efficiency.
- Lead a discussion on the effect of proper and improper diet on health, appearance, and actions.
- Invite a beautician and a barber to speak on the proper care of skin, hair, and nails.
- Organize the class into groups to debate such subjects as: "Whether or not a person is clean is his or her own business," "How a student can improve his personal grooming," etc.
- Lead discussions on various topics, such as, "What do we communicate through clothing?" "How does posture affect health and job efficiency?" "How does it feel to sit or work next to someone who isn't clean?"
- Have students role-play a situation in which long hair made a difference; for instance, in obtaining a public-service job.
- Have students list types of jobs familiar in public-service and the particular grooming practices required.
- Arrange for the showing of films, for example, *Dressing Up, Health Habits, I Want a Job* and discuss the key points.
- Have students view pictures of employees on various jobs and discuss types and appearance of clothing worn.
- Invite the principal or a public-service agency personnel officer to speak on what is expected of a prospective employee.
- Have the students write an essay on what the following sentence means to them: "A first-class appearance is a letter of introduction you can write for yourself."

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Unit 6

RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHER PEOPLE

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Unit 6

RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHER PEOPLE

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

1. Ability to distinguish between formal and informal behavior.
2. Ability to identify the important factors in communicating with people.
3. Ability to understand how defense mechanisms affect communication with others.
4. Ability to identify the roles played in effective person-to-person communication.
5. Ability to acquire the human relations skills needed for getting along with others both on and off the job.
6. Ability to establish greater personal effectiveness with others so as to develop better cooperation and superior-subordinate relationships in public-service working situations.
7. Ability to recognize the mutual dependence of individuals on each other.
8. Ability to form positive attitudes toward the worth and dignity of every human being.
9. Ability to become aware of how feelings affect one's own behavior, as well as one's relationships with other people.
10. Ability to use an understanding of human relationships to effectively work with people.
11. Ability to improve communications with others by developing greater effectiveness in dealing with people in the world of public service.

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

Perhaps the single most important skill that a public-service worker, or anyone for that matter, needs, is the ability to get along with other people. "Person-to-person" relationships are the building blocks of all social interactions between two individuals. If there is one essential ingredient for success in life, both on and off the job, it is developing greater effectiveness in dealing with people.

The skill of the teacher is critical to the success of this unit. He should establish a permissive and non-threatening group climate in which free communication and behavior can take place. The importance of this unit cannot be over stated. The overall objective is to establish greater personal effectiveness with others and to develop better co-operative and superior-subordinate relationships in the public-service occupations. Obtaining greater "self-awareness" is a large part of this goal. Because interpersonal relations are affected by a variety of factors, some attention should be given initially to basic rules of conduct and behavior on the job.

INTERPERSONAL CONDUCT AND BEHAVIOR ON THE JOB

Most public-service agencies have clearly defined rules and regulations. The behavior of the public-service worker is often guided by the established procedures and directives of that individual agency. In many cases, even individual departments or units will have procedures manuals, which regulate conduct and office work.

Formal Organization of the Office

At one point or another, most public-service employees either work directly in an office, or come in frequent contact with other people working in an administrative or staff office. Students should become familiar with the organizational structure of the occupational groups in which they are planning on working. A park worker, for example, must know about the organization of the Parks Department--what kinds of staff or administrative services are provided, what about training, what are the safety rules, what goes into personnel records, etc. Preparing a flow chart of the relationships between different positions in a particular agency is one way of learning about the organization of that office or agency.

Office as a Setting for Formal and Informal Relations

It is necessary to become aware of the different kinds of social relations shared with co-workers and the public. Some co-workers, for example, are seen only at work, and others are seen socially after work and/or on weekends. Factors that determine which co-workers become *personal* friends and which are just *work* friends should be considered and discussed.

On the other hand, a public-service worker usually has more formal relationships with the public with whom he comes into contact. Consider the relationships of the preschool teacher's aide and his students, the library helper and his library patrons, the police cadet and the general public, etc. In each of these cases, the public expects the public-service worker to help them with a particular service.

Although the distinction between formal and informal social relationships is not always clear, one should be sensitive to the fact that both kinds of relationships affect the behavior of the public and the public-service employee. Normally, the very organization of the public-service office helps to create a social climate for developing working relationships of a formal nature, and personal relationships with co-workers and the public which are of a more impersonal nature.

Office Behavior

Specific kinds of behavior relate to these formal and informal relationships with other people. Typically, the formal relationship is well prescribed and regulated by procedures or directives. The license interviewer, as an example, has specific questions to ask, and specific information to obtain from the applicant. Their relationship can be described as formal or prescribed by regulation. On the other hand, other office behavior can best be described as informal and non-prescribed (or *free*). Interpersonal relations in this case are often more personal and relaxed by their very nature.

INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION - THE MEANING

Interpersonal communication can be defined as a two-way flow of information from person-to-person. One cannot study human relations without examining the constant relationships that man has with other people; the individual does not exist in a vacuum. Most of man's psychological and social needs are met through dealings with other people. In fact, one psychiatrist (Harry Stark Sullivan) has developed a theory of personality based upon interpersonal situations. This viewpoint, known as the *Interpersonal Theory of Psychiatry*,

claims that personality is essentially the enduring pattern of continued interpersonal relationships between people. This interpersonal behavior is all that can be observed as *personality*.

Importance of Face-to-Face Contacts

The very phrase, *Public Service Occupations*, suggests frequent face-to-face contacts with not only the general public, but with co-workers as well. With possibly a few exceptions, practically every public-service employee encounters frequent person-to-person contacts both on and off the job. The ability to get along with people is a very important part of public-service work.

Listening Techniques

Effective listening is a critical part of interpersonal communications. Listening is an active process, requiring not only that one must *pay attention* to what is being said, but that one must also *listen* for the meaning of what is being said. Almost one-half of the total time spent communicating, (reading, writing, speaking, or listening) is spent in listening.

Even though people get considerable practice at listening, they don't do too well at it. Many studies have shown that, on the average, a person retains only about 25 percent of a given speech after only 10 minutes have elapsed. Most people forget three quarters of what they hear in a relatively short period of time. Clearly, people need to improve their listening skills if they are to become more effective in their relations with other people.

FACTORS IN INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

There are a number of components that affect the person-to-person relationship. Some of the factors common to both the sender and the receiver in a person-to-person communication are:

The Attitudes and Emotions of the Individuals

For example - two people are shouting and screaming at each other - how effective is their interpersonal communication?

- *The Needs and Wants of the People Communicating*

  Both the sender and receiver have unique desires, some open, and some hidden from the other person. These needs

can and do strongly influence interpersonal relationships.

- *The Implied Demands of the Sender and Receiver*

  An important factor in interpersonal communications involves requests or demands. How are these demands handled? What are some typical responses to demands? These factors are common to both the sender and the receiver in interpersonal relations and affect the individual behavior of the people communicating.

The Choice of Words of the Conversant

One's choice of words can have a direct bearing on the interpersonal communication. The vocabulary one uses in interpersonal relationships should be appropriate for the occasion. For example, a preschool teacher's aide would not use the same vocabulary in talking to a three-year old, as she would in talking to the preschool teacher.

How Each Sees the Other

The process of communicating from person-to-person is greatly influenced by the perception that the sender and receiver have of each other. The feelings that a person has toward the other person are reflected in his tone of voice, choice of words, and even in his *body language*. A reference book mentioned in the resource section of this unit, *How to Read a Person Like a Book*, deals with the importance of body language in person-to-person relationships.

The Right Time and Place

Another factor that may be important in interpersonal relationships is the timing of the communication. For example, one of the first things a supervisor should do if he wants to talk over a problem with his subordinate, is ask the question: "Is this the right time and place?" Problems should not generally be discussed in the middle of an office, where other employees, or the public, can hear the discussion. Personal problems should be discussed only in private.

The Effect of Past Experience

In general, the quality of the person-to-person transaction will depend upon the past experience of the individuals. Human beings have acquired most of their opinions, assumptions, and value judgments through their relationships with other people. Past experience not only helps to teach people about

effective interpersonal relationships, it is also often responsible for the irrational prejudices that a person displays. A strong bias usually blocks the interpersonal relationship if the subject of the communication concerns that particular bias.

The Effect of Personal Differences

An additional factor in interpersonal communications involves the intelligence and other personal differences of the people communicating. An example of such a personal difference is the *objectivity* of the people involved, as compared with their *subjectivity*. One person may try to be very fair and objective in discussing a point with another person, yet this other person is, at the same time, taking everything personally and being very subjective in his viewpoint. It is almost as if an adult was talking to an angry child.

Such differences can impede the communications flow between two people. In fact, all the factors mentioned in communications should be examined as to whether they block or facilitate interpersonal relationships. *The most effective interpersonal relationships are those that are adult-like in their character.*

DEFENSE MECHANISMS IN INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

Defense mechanisms are attempts to defend the individual from anxiety. They are essentially a reaction to frustration - a self-deception.

Causes for Defense Mechanisms

In order to help understand some of the causes for defense mechanisms, remember the basic human needs:

- *Biological or physiological needs* - hunger, water, rest, etc.
- *Psychological or social needs* - status, security, affection, justice etc.

Fear of failure in any of these basic needs appears to be related to the development of defense mechanisms; attitudes toward failure, in turn, originate out of the fabric of childhood experience. The social and cultural conditions encountered during childhood determine the rewards and controls which fill one's later life. These childhood experiences, and their resultant consequences, affect personality

development, the individual's value system, and his definition of acceptable goals.

Individuals who are dominated by the fear of failure may react by using one of these defense mechanisms:

- *Rationalization* - making an impulsive action seem logical.
- *Projection* - assigning one's traits to others.
- *Identification* - assuming someone else's favorite qualities are their own.

Results of Use of Defense Mechanisms

A common factor to all defense mechanisms is their quality of *self-deception*. People cling to their impulses and actions, perhaps disguising them so that they become socially acceptable. Their defense mechanisms can be found in the everyday behavior of most normal people and, of course, have *direct influences* on interpersonal relationships.

A person, for example, who is responsible for a particular job makes a mistake, and the work doesn't get done. When confronted with the problem by his supervisor, the individual puts the blame on someone or something else. This is a very common form of a defense mechanism.

Defense mechanisms can sometimes have *negative influences* on interpersonal communications. They can contribute to the individual forming erroneous opinions about the other person's motives. These mechanisms can alter the perceptions and evaluations made about the individual by other people. Ways to understand these mechanisms must be sought; one solution is to become more aware of the common defense mechanisms, and to become less defensive through greater acceptance of others.

THE INFLUENCES OF ROLE-PLAYING IN INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

Everyone wears a mask and plays a certain role or roles in life. Even if the role one plays is to be himself, that particular form of behavior can still be considered a role. As a public-service employee, one's role is to serve the public. This can be done in a number of ways. Some of the factors involved in public-service roles will be mentioned below:

Exploring Superior-Subordinate Relations

Public-service employees are accountable for their actions.

From the entry-level public administrative analysis trainee, to the President of the United States, every public servant must be accountable to either an immediate supervisor, a governing body, or to the public itself. Entry-level public-service employees gain experience and get promoted, but they continue to be subordinates and responsible for their actions, even though they also become supervisors and have people working for them.

Simulation exercises can be developed which will examine the perceptions of the superior by the subordinate. *Authority* and *power* factors may enter in here, as the superior also perceives the subordinate in a particular way. *Dominance* and *need* factors are at work in superior-subordinate relationships, and the style of leadership used (*autocratic*, *democratic*, or *laissez-faire*) is a form of leadership role.

Peer relationships can be explored through simulation exercises. The ways in which co-workers perceive each other and the resultant effect on cooperation is one area to be examined. Ways to establish a climate or environment for effective, cooperative relations should be sought.

It is desirable also to simulate, for better comprehension, interpersonal communications with the general public. Role-playing techniques, which permit the exploration of person-to-person relationships, are highlighted in the following section on simulation exercises.

Interpersonal Relations Achieved Through Simulation

The preparation of students for entry-level public-service occupations must include an opportunity to experience meaningful interpersonal relations. Public-service employees, whether office or field workers, experience personal relationships with other people every day. The initial success of the public-service worker will depend in large measure upon his ability to interact effectively with others in the office or field. Accordingly, a principle objective of simulation exercises for entry-level public-service education is to have the student acquire the necessary interpersonal relations skills that make for success in all public-service occupations.

When developing a model public-service simulation with the principal objective being to improve favorable interpersonal relations, certain criteria must be established. These criteria may be stated as follows:

- *Interpersonal relations must be the principal component of the simulation.* Provision must be made for students to interact with others in an office interpersonal setting so

that they may work and communicate effectively with one another.

- *The simulation must be as realistic as possible.* Realism can best be accomplished by simulating an actual public-service operation in as many areas as possible.

- *Originality must play an important part.* Model simulations, currently in use, must not be copied in an effort to maintain simplicity.

- *The simulation must be interesting.* Students must be motivated to participate in the simulation and to be enthusiastic about its operation.

- *The simulation must be unstructured.* Provision must be made to allow for an awareness of events as they take place. Students must learn to cope with a situation without prior knowledge that the situation will occur.

In order for the teacher to determine if the model public-service simulation developed has, in fact, improved interpersonal relations, the simulation must be evaluated in terms of meeting the established objectives.

MEASURING INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

Survey of Interpersonal Values

A valid and reliable instrument for measuring interpersonal relations, such as the *Survey of Interpersonal Values*, may be used for this purpose. This instrument is intended for grades 9-12, and is designed to measure the relative importance of the major factored interpersonal value dimensions. These values include both the subject's relations with others and others with himself. The value dimensions considered are:

- *Support*--being treated with understanding, encouragement, kindness, and consideration.

- *Conformity*--doing what is socially correct, accepted, and proper.

- *Recognition*--being admired, looked up to, considered important, and attracting favorable notice.

- *Independence*--being able to do what one wants to do, making one's own decisions, doing things in one's own way.

- *Benevolence*--doing things for other people, sharing, and helping.

- *Leadership*--being in charge of others, having authority or power.

A pretest on interpersonal values is administered before the model public-service simulation actually begins, and the same test is administered as a post-test after a stipulated period of time. By comparison of results, and through the use of applicable statistics, the gain in behavior modification in interpersonal relations can be determined, as a result of using the model public-service simulation.

Analysis of Interpersonal Behavior

Public-service employees should be aware of their own needs, and of the needs of other people. They should be able to recognize situations or behavior calling for professional help, and be able to refer people to such appropriate help. New employees must be able to use their knowledge of person-to-person relationships to effectively work with people.

In order to become more effective in interpersonal relationships, students must gain an understanding of:

- *Self-evaluation* - to be able to assess their own strengths and weaknesses.
- *Group Evaluation* - as a class to be able to evaluate other individuals' competencies in interpersonal communications.
- *Correction of own self-perception* - to be able to do something about the knowledge and attitudes formed by adjusting their individual behavior.

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

- Define formal and informal social behavior.
- List the important factors in interpersonal communication.
- View and discuss the film strip, *Your Educational Goals, No. 2: Human Relationships.*
- Role play in alternate supervisor-subordinate relationships practicing effective interpersonal communication.
- Write an essay on "Defense mechanisms affect interpersonal relationships".
- View the film, *The Unanswered Question*, and discuss human relationships afterwards.

- Listen to a discussion of structured interpersonal communications and evaluate the effectiveness of the person-to-person relationship.
- In small groups, discuss the ways in which people are mutually dependent on each other.
- Use simulation exercises to practice interpersonal relations.
- List the different kinds of roles and games played in interpersonal communications.
- Debate the statement: *Understanding person-to-person relations is one of the most important skills a person can acquire for success in life.*
- Discuss how understanding interpersonal relationships can help a person to effectively work with people.
- Define the role of recognizing one's own feelings in relation to others.

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

- Have the students define formal and informal social behavior.
- Show transparencies on interpersonal relations, (*Social Sensitivity, Your Relationship with Others*) and discuss concepts afterwards.
- Assign written exercises on the important factors in interpersonal communication.
- Set up role-playing exercises on subordinate-supervisor roles in effective interpersonal communication.
- Encourage small-group discussions of the ways people are mutually dependent on each other.
- Show a movie on human relationships (*The Unanswered Question*) and discuss key points afterwards.
- Separate the class into teams to debate such statements as: *Understanding interpersonal relations is one of the most important skills a person can acquire for success in life.*
- Encourage individual study and reading in interpersonal relationships.
- Assign an essay on the worth and dignity of man in interpersonal relations.
- Bring in public-service workers who deal with others to

talk to the class about the value of effective interpersonal communications.

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Unit 7

INTERVIEWING SKILLS

Here are the contents of Unit 7 of the Common Core group. We suggest a careful reading of it before you read the text.

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Unit 7

INTERVIEWING SKILLS

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

1. Ability of the public-service employee to work towards becoming a good interviewer or interviewee on his job and in his life.
2. Ability to conduct referral or other interviews to obtain and verify information.
3. Ability to observe interviewees skillfully.
4. Ability to evaluate the effectiveness of an interview.
5. Ability to cope with problems that come up during an interview.
6. Ability to check an applicant's references.

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

This unit is designed to develop the student's ability to interview people, and to obtain and verify information. It will also give trainees practice in special-purpose interviews, such as making referrals, classifying prohibited behavior, protective intervention, employment, financial eligibility, etc.

Public-service workers will be required to give different kinds of interviews on various occasions. They may be required to interview other professional personnel in their major occupational group and to grant interviews to official personnel. They will certainly be interviewed at some time for such things as jobs, raises, credit ratings, and opening bank accounts. Certain public-service workers will also be required to interview clients, patients, pupils, families, etc.

For the majority of the students, the role of an interviewer will be a new one. In the past, some of them have been the unwilling, nervous, perhaps hostile recipients of interviews by welfare workers, police, and employers. Practice interviews, relative to their future jobs, can serve as a base for proficiency in interviewing skills.

Students should acquire necessary theory and skills to become aware of the various kinds of interviews and the people who conduct them. Various types of interviews include: employment, counseling, newspaper reporting, and police interrogation. Interviews are performed by a wide variety of people: psychologists, social-service workers, lawyers, salesmen, policemen, tax inspectors, immigration officers, journalists, etc.

BEFORE THE INTERVIEW STARTS

Reasons for Interviews. The kind of interview depends basically on its reason - some give advice, some seek information, some give information. Here are some of the major reasons for conducting an interview:

- To obtain information,
- To evaluate a person's background,
- To evaluate the interviewee's character and/or personality,
- To provide information,
- To maintain good public or employee relations.

Completing Applications or Forms. Another major reason for conducting an interview is to help the public or co-workers in filling out applications or forms. In this kind of interview one needs to assist the interviewee in clarifying needed information or in filling in the form correctly. Since needed information can easily be omitted, the forms must be checked for completeness.

If a form is to be used for a later interview, the interviewer may want to prepare questions from the information furnished. Areas to look for in this case include:

- Identifying factors needing elaboration,
- Identifying factors that will bring out more information,
- Identifying factors that are not clear.

In reviewing applications or forms, there are certain critical areas to watch for, such as an interviewee's work experience. The applicant's work experience should contain sufficient details in these areas:

- Amounts of time
- Types of work experience
- Financial levels of compensation

These three factors are usually given great weight in evaluating the applicant. Other important areas to watch include the applicant's financial ability, and his prior credit references. Age should be taken into account when checking credit references. A young man or woman, for example, should not be expected to have established an extensive credit rating.

CONDUCTING INTERVIEWS

An interview is essentially an interaction between people through words and acts. During this process, knowledge is acquired by both interviewer and interviewee. It is important to note that the information sought should be purposeful and related to the reason for the interview. A license interviewer should not be primarily concerned with attempting to classify whether the interviewee's behavior requires intervention from the law enforcement agencies. Common sense should dictate that the kinds of questions asked should be determined by the "role" of the agency, and the immediate concerns of the person being interviewed.

Starting the Interview. One of the first tasks in the beginning of an interview is the establishment of rapport, or mutual liking or respect. After a friendly atmosphere has been created by putting the applicant at ease, the interviewer can ask the first question. If the interview has to do with a specific application, the interviewer should pick noncontroversial matter from the form to discuss first. Use of these techniques is designed to get the applicant talking. An atmosphere should be created that will encourage the interviewee to discuss freely what is on his mind.

Importance of Understanding People. The interviewer should have a good knowledge of human behavior and interpersonal relationships. He should realize that people often behave in an inconsistent way. They may give themselves away in an interview by saying one thing orally, and by expressing the opposite meaning in body movements. Students might want to read the resources listed in the back of this unit concerning the new art and science of body language.

The interviewer should be able to observe applicants skillfully. The responsibility of utilizing all the senses to obtain and mentally verify information received during the in-

terview occurs daily on the job. The successful social-service worker, for example, must master these techniques quickly in order to improve his effectiveness.

Guiding the Body of the Interview. Ask questions to get information. There are basically two kinds of questions - *directive* and *nondirective*.

The *directive question*, as its name implies, guides or directs the interviewee in a specific area. Directive questions can usually be answered with a few words, such as "yes" or "no." A typical directive question might be, "How long have you worked at the XYZ Company?"

Nondirective questions, on the other hand, give the interviewee a chance to say what is on his mind. Words such as: what, how, why, etc., are often used in nondirective questioning. A typical nondirective question might be, "Why did you leave the XYZ Company, Mr. Rean?"

A good technique to use to encourage the applicant to talk is to begin with a nondirective question. If the applicant does not respond appropriately to a nondirective question, then use a more directive question. An example of this technique could be:

Interviewer: "What did you dislike most about your last job?"

Interviewee: "Oh - not much."

Interviewer: "Did you feel as though your supervisor treated you fairly?"

Interviewee: "My supervisor! Why that guy was definitely not fair - let me tell you..."

In the above simplified example one can see how the interviewer began with a general question about the job, and when he felt that the applicant didn't respond appropriately, he used a more specific directive question, which in this case triggered a response from the applicant. By alternating between directive and nondirective questions, an interviewer can skillfully guide the discussion and obtain the necessary information from the interviewee.

Related Factors. Factors that will affect the relationship in the interview can either help or hinder the process. These will strengthen the relationship: interest, demonstrated concern, attentiveness, willingness to listen, and questioning for fuller understanding of issues at hand. On the other hand,

there are some factors which obstruct relationships, such as: indifference, judgmental attitudes, insensitivity, being aloof, inactivity, or being late for appointments.

Purpose of Interview. If the purpose of the interview is to help the interviewee, the interviewer should be *supportive*, and exhibit a positive and active understanding of feelings which are given expression by his behavior. However, if the interview is designed to be an interrogation of a prisoner, the method of its conduct is determined by many factors: suspect, crime, time element, and location (field, home, or headquarters).

Techniques and methods of police interrogation have had to change in recent years, and the police must now be more aware of protecting each citizen's private rights. Each suspect should be advised of his rights before his statement will be considered admissible for evidence. Citizens must not be arbitrarily subjected to interrogation; the officer must have more than just a hunch, and must be able to substantiate his reason for an interrogation. However, if an officer has good reason to be suspicious, whatever the reasons may be, he has a duty to make the inquiry or interrogation.

As can be seen, the purpose of the interview can have a drastic effect on guiding the body of the interview.

Closing the Interview. In terminating the interview, the interviewee should be told when he can expect a decision or obtain the necessary information he needs. If possible, the interviewer should answer any final questions the applicant may have.

If the applicant has to be rejected, the interviewer should accomplish this diplomatically. Courtesy and tact are especially important at this point in the interview, if a good image of the interviewer's agency is to be projected to the public.

If the interview had definite time limits, it is a good idea to remind the applicant at the beginning of this fact, and once again a few minutes before the time is up, to give the interviewee a chance to conclude his discourse.

Remembering Key Points. An effective technique for the interviewer to use during the interview is to take notes. This will help him to remember the main points of the conversation. On some occasions, however, taking notes during the course of an interview can be distracting to the applicant, or can some-

times inhibit the interviewee's responsiveness. In such cases, the interviewer should write his notes immediately after the interview. The applicant will not then be distracted, and the interviewer can remember the key points of the discussion while they are still fresh in his mind.

Problems in Interviewing. A major difficulty in interviewing involves dealing with *ambivalence* (feelings of simultaneous attraction and repulsion) and sometimes, open conflict. The interviewer should become aware of these types of applicant behavior:

- The person asks for advice, but doesn't use it;
- The person agrees to a plan, but doesn't carry it out;
- The person says one thing, and does another.

Does this ambivalence exist in only the interviewee, or does it also exist in the interviewer? In fact, the degree to which the interviewer understands himself and is aware of his own feelings has a direct effect on the conduct of the interview. Problem areas to explore include:

- *The feelings of the Interviewer.*

  Do they interfere in an interview?
  What forms of expression do they take?
  Is control of one's own feelings important?
  Why?

- *Over-involvement by the Interviewer.*

  Is this helpful or harmful?
  What kinds of behavior might result from a non-professional approach to interviewing?

Prejudice. If the interviewer is rigid and inflexible in his thinking, this could have a harmful impact on the interview. The goal of the interviewer should be to become aware of his personal biases, and honestly try to control them, so that the interview can be conducted in a fair and honest way.

Confidentiality. A public office is, in many ways, a public trust. As an interviewer, one should become familiar with the extent to which confidential information is shared by other people in his agency. The procedures for sharing confidential information should be known, and a clear definition should be given at each agency as to what constitutes confidential information. Whenever information of a confidential nature must be shared with others, it should be on a need-to-know basis, and its confidentiality should be carefully explained to the person receiving the information.

Dependence, Interdependence, and Independence.

- How are the qualities of dependence, interdependence, and independence manifested in the interview? To some extent, these characteristics exist in all people.

- Are these qualities good or bad, or does it depend upon the circumstances?

For example, a positive aspect of dependence is the ability to trust and form deep personal relationships. A negative aspect of being overly dependent is the resultant lack of self-reliance and initiative. People who are independent are usually self-confident; however, too much independence could be a problem in the interviewing process.

Interdependence among individuals can be seen in marriages, working relationships, and in interviewing. Examples of group interdependences include:

- Between agencies,
- Between agencies and the community, and
- Between local, state, and federal governmental agencies.

Undue Hurry When Questioning Applicants.

- Don't anticipate what the interviewee is going to say. It's easy to jump to conclusions; much harder to hold one's judgement.
- Another habit to avoid is putting words in the applicant's mouth.
- Don't let the applicant lead you astray in the interview.
- Get the interviewee back on the track by acknowledging his remark, and asking a directive question back on the main point of the discussion.

Controlling the Interview. The extent to which the interviewer feels a need to control the interview will, of course, be determined by the purpose of the interview. Much less control would be exerted on an interviewee in a social-service agency than in a law enforcement agency while interrogating a suspect.

Shy applicants should be encouraged to open up by asking them nondirective or open-ended questions. An overly talkative applicant can be controlled by asking more directive questions, and by watching for digressions during the discussion.

Common Weaknesses of Interviewers. Here are some of the more common faults of interviewers:

- *Talking too much* - especially in those interviews that are designed to get information from the interviewee.
- *Guiding applicant too much* - particularly in those interviews that are designed to allow the interviewee to express whatever is troubling him.
- *Dominating the interview* - it should be a process of give and take.
- *Talking down to the applicant* - this condescending attitude can usually be spotted pretty easily.
- *Failing to listen* - a common fault, however, inexcusable for an interviewer.

AFTER THE INTERVIEW

Evaluating the Interview

- What information was learned about the applicant?
- Was it sufficient?
- What was not learned that should have been?
- If problems came up in the interview, who made the decisions?
- What was the role of the interviewer and interviewee?

Some of the factors involved in decision-making are:

- Facts involved - how are they maintained?
- Availability of acceptable alternatives.
- Readiness to take action.

There are definite dangers to be aware of when making decisions or evaluating an interviewee. One such danger is irrational prejudice. Each of us is biased to a certain extent, either for or against certain ethnic, racial, or religious groups. The better the interviewer understands himself, and in particular the more he is aware of his personal beliefs towards certain individuals and groups, the better off he will be for having recognized them. He can then compensate for any prejudicial bias.

This bias could work in the opposite manner. For example, an interviewer could be so blinded by an applicant's good traits, that he would not see his faults because of this *halo effect.*

Checking References. A part of the process of many interviews involves the actual checking of personal references for these purposes:

- To verify information obtained from the application and interview,
- To obtain an evaluation by people who know the interviewee's work history,
- To obtain additional information not disclosed on the application or during the interview.

Additional verifying information may be obtained from letters of reference supplied by the applicant. There are some disadvantages to letters of reference. They may be vague or even dishonest. Sometimes, such letters may not contain the information sought. Quite often, information supplied directly by the applicant's past employers is the best source to use.

When evaluating replies, consider these factors:

- They may not be complete,
- They may be vague to cover negative factors,
- They may contain information taken from records which may not tell the complete story.

Obtaining Information from References. Letter writing is a standard way of obtaining information about an individual. However, since a letter may take too much time, or cost too much, it is recommended that the telephone should be used whenever possible. One reason for the telephone's effectiveness is that a direct contact with the reference is possible. This makes for better communication, since specific questions and follow-up answers can be obtained. In addition, doubts and omissions can be picked up from the person's voice.

Before making a telephone call to a reference, a checklist of questions should first be prepared. In talking to the reference, the following guidelines should be utilized:

- Establish rapport,
- Be businesslike,
- Let reference talk freely,
- Don't put words in respondent's mouth,
- Probe for strengths and weaknesses.

A personal visit is sometimes advantageous, and can often be more effective in bringing out more information about the applicant. In such cases, arrange to meet the reference and use the same principles as in the telephone checks.

Finally, information may be obtained concerning references by the hiring of outside investigators. This method has the advantages of getting more personal and more objective information. There are, however, certain disadvantages: the outside investigator may not obtain the best available information, and there may be considerable expense involved.

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

- Participate in role-playing exercises after being given a brief introduction to the basic techniques of interviewing.
- Role-play in a wide variety of interviews, such as employment, welfare eligibility, and license application, and gain experience as both an interviewer and interviewee.
- Observe interviews during role-playing exercises, evaluating what the interviewee is communicating.
- Listen to examples of interviews on tape, and be prepared to discuss the techniques used to overcome problems that developed during the interview.
- Interview public-service workers in your community about their jobs to learn more about careers, and practice newly acquired interviewing skills.
- Write a short essay on how to conduct an interview. Include the start, guidance, conclusion, and evaluation of the results.
- Talk to public-service employees who do a great deal of interviewing in their jobs. Be prepared to discuss questions with them.
- Talk to your school guidance counselor or psychologist about interviewing skills.

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

- Plan on utilizing role-playing exercises to practice knowledge learned.
- Have students play both the interviewer and interviewee in various types of interviews, such as eligibility, employment, license interviews, etc.
- Prepare tapes of different types of interviews, and play them for the class to discuss and evaluate.
- Encourage students to use all their senses as interviewers to carefully observe what is being communicated by the interviewee.
- Encourage individual practice of interviewing skills whenever possible, such as with local public-service employees.
- Assign short essays on the process of interviewing: starting, guiding, concluding, and evaluating.

- Obtain specialized interviewing materials, such as public-safety techniques from neighboring police departments.
- Arrange to have public-service workers come into the class to talk about interviewing techniques.
- Provide opportunities for the school guidance counselor or psychologist to discuss interviewing skills.
- Approach the theory of interviewing through practice situations whenever possible.
- Borrow interviewing films from the local library or educational resource center.

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Unit 8

APPLYING FOR PUBLIC SERVICE JOBS

Here are the contents of Unit 8 of the Common Core group. We suggest a careful reading of it before you read the text.

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Unit 8

APPLYING FOR PUBLIC-SERVICE JOBS

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

1. Ability to obtain information on current job opportunities in the various occupational areas found in the public service field.
2. Ability to understand the qualifications and hiring process for civil service jobs.
3. Ability to develop a systematic approach to finding a job in public-service occupations, and to plan and organize the job search.
4. Ability to gather information needed for preparing job applications.
5. Ability to understand implications of questions on civil service job application forms, and to respond with clarity and directness.
6. Ability to develop understanding and attitudes necessary for taking written examinations for public-service jobs.
7. Ability to select, organize, and present ideas in job interview situations before a qualifications appraisal (oral interview) panel.
8. Ability to make a viable career decision and establish a career direction and goal for continued career development.

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

This unit is designed:

- to provide an awareness of the basic skills required for employment,

- to impart an understanding of the recruitment and examination process used to fill public-service jobs, and
- to describe procedures, methods, and techniques for applying for a job in the public-service career field.

In presenting this unit, the emphasis will be placed on:

- the understanding of basic job finding and job application techniques,
- the importance of deciding upon an occupational choice,
- the necessity for exploring job requirements in the public-service career field, and
- the importance of planning and organizing the steps to be taken in applying for a job in the public-service field.

THE PUBLIC SERVICE CAREER FIELD

As a first step in applying for a job in public-service, attention should be given to understanding the field of public service, and identifying the occupational groups found therein. It is assumed that much of this information has already been covered in prior course work. An earlier publication in this curriculum series, *Orientation to Public Service Occupations*, can be used as a reference in this regard. However, a brief discussion of public-service occupations follows to highlight the wide range of jobs found in public-service occupations.

General Occupational Areas. Public-service employees are at work in occupations representing nearly every kind of job in private industry, as well as some unique to the federal government, such as Postal Clerk, Foreign Service Officer, Immigration Inspector, Border Patrolman, and Internal Revenue Agent. Practically all federal employees are found in jobs under the civil service merit system.

Public service workers are a significant part of the nonagricultural work force in every state. Their jobs are found in units of local governments such as counties, municipalities, towns, and school districts. In addition, more than one-fourth of the state and local government work force are employed in state government agencies.

Federal, state, and local employees are at work in offices and laboratories; public schools, colleges, and other educational services and programs; in hospitals, clinics, and libraries; in police and fire protection; in housing and urban renewal; in highway construction and maintenance; in parks and recreation; in public utilities; and in natural resources and conservation.

Public-service workers perform general and financial control activities; work in sewage disposal and water treatment systems; in tax enforcement programs; and in the administration of justice.

Public-service workers collect and distribute the mail; take care of disabled veterans; administer employment, social security, welfare, and health programs; and inspect foods and drugs to see that they are pure.

They check and improve the quality of fruits, vegetables, and other agricultural products; maintain our national parks; forecast the weather; and perform research in the fields of electronics, radio, and radar. They explore the ocean depths and the reaches of space.

All of these activities and functions require workers in such varied occupations as clerk, economist, mathematician, engineer, electrician, forester, educator, pipefitter, and custodian. Clerical, administrative, custodial, and maintenance workers constitute a significant proportion of all employees in many areas of government activity., When we consider the many different governmental agencies, programs, and jurisdictions, and the variety and spread of activities and functions found within them, we can readily see that a diversified work force, with many different levels of education, training, and skill, is required.

The Working Members in Public Service

The thousands of people working in the public-service field come from various socioeconomic levels, and possess many varied skills, aptitudes, talents, abilities, and experiences.

Public-service activities are carried out in offices, establishments, institutions, agencies, schools, and research foundations located in every city, county school district, and State Capitol. The principal offices of most federal agencies are located in Washington, D.C., and their field establishments are scattered throughout the United States and its territories; some even being in foreign countries.

THE EMPLOYING AGENCIES

The Civil Service Merit System. With few exceptions, almost all occupations in public service fall under civil service merit systems. Under the merit system, appointments to jobs are made on the basis of ability to do the work - ability demonstrated in competition with other applicants.

All qualified applicants receive consideration for appointment

without regard to any other factor than the results of oral and written examinations. This is a democratic way to fill jobs. It is also a way to make sure that competent persons are hired. Since interested applicants compete with one another for these positions, they are called *competitive positions*. Federal civil service competitive examinations may be taken by all persons who are citizens of the United States, or who owe permanent allegiance to the United States (in the case of residents of American Samoa).

Examinations vary according to the types of positions for which they are held. Some examinations include written tests, others do not. Written tests examine the applicant's ability to do the job applied for, or his ability to learn how to do it.

Applicants are sometimes selected for public-service jobs on the basis of non-written examinations. In non-written examinations, applicants are rated on the basis of the experience and training described in their job application, and any supporting evidence required.

Students should ensure that their applications are filled out carefully and that the information which they provide is clear, complete, and concise. Many disappointed applicants have obtained low eligibility ratings, or have been rated ineligible, because they did not take the time and trouble to read the job announcement carefully and fill out the application forms completely.

State and Local Government Positions. As with the federal civil service, a majority of state and local government public service positions are filled through some type of formal civil service test, and personnel are hired and promoted on the basis of merit.

In some areas, broad groups of employees (such as teachers, firemen, and policemen) have separate civil service coverage which applies only to their specific groups.

Applying for a Job. Almost all types of jobs found in private industry are found in the public-service field.

However, the state, county or city personnel offices, and area offices operated by the U.S. Civil Service Commission, accept applications for specified types of occupations only when there is a need to fill such positions.

CHOOSING A CAREER FIELD

What steps should the student take to help in planning his career choice and development? How well does the student know himself? Does he know about the qualifications needed for occupations in the public service career field? Does he know about the world of work?

These are important considerations for any job. Has the student thought about them?

Gaining Awareness of One's Interests and Abilities. An individual's interests and abilities go hand-in-hand when considering a career or occupational choice, when planning career development, and when planning the job search. He may have interest, but possess little ability, and would not therefore be able to greatly achieve in a career field. On the other hand, if a student possesses little interest in a career, notwithstanding the fact that he has the ability to perform, he would be ill-advised to choose it for his life's work. *Thus, the student must have both interest in, and ability for, the career field he chooses.*

Interests. Students should find out what their interests are:

- What school subjects are most liked?
- What hobbies, sports, clubs, or part-time jobs are engaged in?
- Is music an important part of his life? What type?
- What kinds of reading are done?

A student who may want to think more deeply about his interests may find an *occupational preference test*, or *interest inventory*, helpful in assisting him to relate his interest pattern to the occupations of his choice. A guidance counselor will discuss interests in terms of requirements for various occupational areas. However, students should understand that an interest inventory cannot tell them whether they have the *ability* to perform well in certain occupations.

Abilities. In addition to his interest, one should give serious consideration to his abilities. A good place to start is considering the grades made in some of the school subjects, as in English, languages, social science, history, mathematics, and science, and then listing the strengths and the weaknesses. In addition, the thoughtful person may wish to review his accomplishments in aptitude and achievement tests. These scores may also indicate strong and weak areas of ability. Further-

more, much assistance in this planning can be obtained from discussion of accomplishments and career plans with parents, teachers, and counselors.

It is extremely important to get a clear idea of one's interests and abilities, so there will not be much focus on an occupational field that may be out of reach, or at a level of skill and ability which may under-utilize his capacities and skills. It is equally important that he should choose an occupation that will challenge him, in work that is commensurate with his abilities. This will make his career more rewarding.

Gaining Awareness of Pertinent Personal Factors. As people look at themselves to learn more about their interests and abilities, it is also important to look at other significant personal factors and attributes. Working in the public-service career field generally demands that these individuals must work well with others, either as a member of a team, or of a group performing various activities and functions toward a common goal. It is appropriate to consider how well one gets along with teachers, friends, and neighbors. *Ability to associate well with one's associates is a key to success in whatever endeavor one chooses.*

It is important, and true, to know that a specialized skill may sometimes be no more valuable than a pleasant, cheerful attitude. Students should give some thought to discovering those things they like and dislike, and those biases, prejudices, and inhibitions they may have. On the more positive side, it is well to evaluate how well one can express his feelings, needs, ideas, and strong points.

Importance of Communication Skills. Communication skills are basic to many jobs. Communication is the transfer of information between people; as, for instance, from:

- one person to another,
- one worker to another,
- the businessman to the customer,
- the scientist to the layman,
- the teacher to the student,
- the parent to the child,
- the applicant to the personnel interviewer.

Communication calls for trained men and women who can deal with new subject matter, grasp the essentials, and transmit and pass

ideas and facts on to others. No business or endeavor can exist without the use of words. Reading, writing, listening, and speaking have essential roles in applying for a job, and play an important part in the successful performance of almost every endeavor. A job applicant uses language skills to fill out a work application, and to participate in a job interview. It is important to remember that the first impression one makes on a would-be employer may be the most important, and final, impression of all.

The job application and resume should be grammatically correct and correctly punctuated. Use of correct grammar during the oral interview may not get one the job, but the lack of it may make one the least likely candidate for the position.

In many public-service jobs, workers are expected to write memorandums and reports, to develop catalogs, training materials and manuals, to disseminate information, or to talk to groups. If applicants are clear, accurate, and concise in writing and speaking, chances for a good job are improved. *The more easily one can express his ideas, the more self-confidence he is likely to feel.*

CONSIDERING A PUBLIC SERVICE OCCUPATION

Selection of one's lifetime occupation is one of the most serious and important steps he ever takes, but, in doing this, one must remember that:

- Occupational choice takes a great deal of time.
- Occupational choice requires a great amount of knowledge about different careers.
- Occupational choice involves much real thought about future goals and expectations.

Selecting the Occupational Group. When thinking about selection of a career in public service, one should become acquainted with the many different occupational groups within the public-service career field; it will be helpful to make mental notes of those occupational categories found to be most attractive.

Since there are so many different occupations within the public service career field, it is perhaps easier to start by selecting from broad occupational groups or families, such as professional, technical, managerial, clerical, or other groups that attract the prospective worker.

Selecting the Occupational Specialty. Once a selection has been made of the occupational groups, proceed to the occupational specialties within those groups, and again find those that are of most interest. When the most attractive occupational specialty has been determined, there is then a need to learn about its educational and experience requirements, and about the responsibilities of the job, in order to determine the necessary qualifications to perform the job. Students will find the curriculum guideline, *Orientation to Public Service Occupations*, and the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, a publication of the Manpower Administration, the Department of Labor, of assistance in providing information about skills and requirements of a variety of occupations.

Becoming Aware of Possible Positions. General announcement bulletins tell about job vacancies in many fields. These bulletins should be read carefully to learn:

- The experience and education which is needed before the application will be accepted,
- Whether a written test is required,
- Where the jobs are located, and
- What the pay is.

The announcement will provide instructions for submitting the job application, and will state the closing date for acceptance of applications. Applications will many times be accepted from students who are taking courses which would permit them to meet the qualifications requirement of the position being sought, and who expect to complete the courses within nine months.

Getting More Information About the Position. The U. S. Civil Service Commission, through its system of area offices located in centers of federal population, announces and conducts examinations; checks applicant's work experience, training, and aptitude; and sends the names of persons who meet the requirements to the agencies seeking new employees.

Each area office also provides, through its *Federal Job Information Center*, a complete one-step information service about federal job opportunities in the immediate area, and in other locations. These Centers provide, at no charge to the applicant, complete information about current job opportunities in any part of the United States, vacancies in *shortage categories* occupations in particular demand by the various federal agencies, opportunities for overseas employment, and employment counseling service. They are especially equipped to answer all inquiries about federal employment opportunities.

Information about current job opportunities and application forms may also be obtained in the local post office, in state, county, or city personnel offices, in public libraries, and school and college placement offices. Recruitment notices are frequently published in newspapers, usually in the classified ad sections.

Closing Dates for Filing Applications. Applications are accepted by the Civil Service Commission or its area office, or by the state, city, county, or local district, as long as the announcement is in an open state. In most (but not all) instances, the closing date for filing the application is stated in the announcement. If the closing date is not stated, filing is on an open and continuous basis, and public notice of the closing date is given later. In some cases, the federal government permits persons who cannot apply on time because they are in military service, to apply after the closing date, provided that they apply within 120 days after an honorable discharge date.

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE POSITION

Reading the Job Announcement. The job announcement should be read carefully. It gives information about the positions to be filled and the required qualifications.

The applicant may prefer to work near his home. If the announcement specifies that the jobs to be filled are in a certain locality and the applicant does not want to work in that location, he should not file for the job. On the other hand, he may wish to pay particular attention to more localized employment opportunities in city, county, or state jobs. Federal employment frequently offers many opportunities to live and work away from home.

Unpaid experience or volunteer work (such as in community, cultural, social service, youth, and professional associations) will be given credit on the same basis as that given for paid experience, if it is the type and level acceptable under the announcement. Such experience should be reported in one or more of the experience blocks on the application or personal qualifications statement. The actual time spent in such activities, such as the number of hours per week, should be shown in order to receive proper credit.

The announcements provide specific information about the levels of experience needed. An applicant must be able to show that he has had experience or education at a level comparable in difficulty and responsibility to the specifications listed on the announcement.

Determining Education Requirements. Educational entrance requirements for civil service jobs vary widely. Persons entering into professional occupations are usually required to have highly specialized knowledge in a specified field, as evidenced by completion of a prescribed college course of study, or the equivalent in experience. Typical occupations in this group are physicist, scientist, and engineer.

Entrants into administrative and managerial occupations usually are not required to have knowledge of a specialized field, but rather must indicate by education or responsible job experience, the potential for development. The entrant usually begins at a trainee level and learns the duties of the job after he is hired. Typical jobs in this group are purchasing aide, budget aide, claims examiner, administrative assistant, and personnel aide.

Persons having high school, junior college, or technical school training may apply for such entry-level positions as technician clerical aide, laboratory assistant, supply clerk, educational aide, or Forest Service aide. The entry-level position is usually that of learner or trainee, in which category the duties and specifics of the job are learned, and the skill is improved.

Determining Age Requirements. Although there is no legal discrimination because of age, most individuals are between the ages of 18 and 65 when hired; the usual minimum is 18, although at the age of 16 high-school graduates may apply for some jobs. If the student is 16 or 17 and out of school, but not a high school graduate, he may be hired only:

- if he has successfully completed a formal training program,
- if he has been out of school at least 3 months, and
- if school authorities sign a form furnished by the hiring agency, agreeing with the individual's preference for work instead of additional schooling.

If the student is still in high school, he may be accepted for work during vacation periods if he is 16, or for part-time work during the school years if he is 16, and meets these conditions:

- His work schedule is set up through agreement with his school,
- His school certifies that he can maintain good standing while working, and
- He remains enrolled in high school.

At the other end of the scale, most public-service agencies will not hire an individual who is over 65 years of age.

Determining Citizenship Requirements. Normally, only American citizens and (American Samoans) may apply for competitive examinations in the Federal Civil Service. Other public-service agencies may require that the applicant be a U. S. citizen or declare his interest to become a U. S. citizen.

Determining Physical Requirements. Candidates for public-service jobs must be physically able to perform the duties of the position, and must be emotionally and mentally stable. Often, a complete physical examination performed by a physician is required before a person can be appointed to a public-service position.

A handicap will not disqualify an applicant if he can perform the work efficiently without being a hazard to himself and others.

The federal government has a special program to encourage the employment of handicapped persons. It recognizes that, in almost every kind of work, there are some positions suitable for the blind, the deaf, and others with serious impairments.

For most positions candidates must have good distant vision in one eye, and be able to read, without strain, printed material the size of typewritten characters. Candidates may use glasses to meet these requirements.

Persons appointed are usually required to hear the conversational voice. A hearing aid may be used.

An amputation of an arm, hand, leg, or foot does not in itself bar a person from federal, state, or local government employment. The criterion is whether the person can handle the job satisfactorily without hazard to himself and others.

However, positions in such occupations as policemen, firefighters, and border patrolman, can be filled only by persons in good physical condition. Physical requirements are normally described in detail in the job announcements.

THE JOB APPLICATION

The application is the first step in the examination process, and will constitute the first real contact with the prospective hiring authority. It is, therefore, important that the application be completed carefully and completely.

Detailed requirements of the data required and instructions for filling out and filing the Personal Qualifications Statement, and employment application forms used by the various state, county, city, and municipal civil service boards, are generally attached to and made a part of the application form. Applicants should read these instructions carefully before entering any information on the form.

Assembling the Required Data. The first task in completing the application is to select, arrange, and organize the data needed. To determine needed data, in addition to the requirements listed on the application, the applicant should ask himself, and provide the data to answer, *What parts of my training and experience are relevant to the job goal?*

Prospective applicants may find it helpful to set up a personal file of information needed to complete the application. The file should contain such information as:

- Date of birth,
- Social Security Account Number,
- Names and locations of schools attended,
- Dates of attendance,
- Courses taken,
- Dates of completion,
- Diplomas and/or certificates earned.

In addition, work history should be listed. The work experience should include all data relevant to each job:

- Name and address of each employer,
- Beginning and ending dates of employment for each job,
- Name of supervisor or immediate superior,
- The job title of the position held,
- A brief, concise description of the work performed, and
- The reason for leaving the job.

The personal file should also include the names and addresses of individuals who are willing to provide personal recommendations as to character or skills. Of course, *permission should be obtained from referenced individuals before their names are provided on a work application.*

Filling Out the Application. When sure that he meets requirements listed in the announcement, and that he has gathered all

the information necessary for completing the application, the applicant is ready to fill out the application form.

For some job opportunities, he may have to fill out, at first, only a small card that will be used to admit him to an examination room; sooner or later, however, he will have to fill out a two or four-page Personal Qualification Statement or application for employment.

The application should be complete and neat. Information should be filled in with typewriter or pen and ink.

Need for Completeness. Every question on the application form or Personal Qualification Statement must be answered fully and accurately. If every question on the form is not answered, the Area Office of the Civil Service Commission, or the state or local civil service board will have to write the applicant to get the missing information. This takes time and causes delay, and could mean loss of employment opportunities.

For many positions, written tests are not required, and applicants are rated solely on their training and experience. Obviously, an applicant cannot get credit for experience or training which he does not claim on his application.

Need for Honesty. It is also important that applicants be completely truthful in all of their answers. False statements on an application can have serious consequences, and may be grounds for an ineligible rating for employment. In some cases, untruthful answers may even leave one open for prosecution for perjury.

Need for Timeliness. The application should be signed and dated. Instructions in the announcement should be followed as to when and where to send the application. To be considered, applications should be sent to the appropriate office not later than the final filing date.

Importance of the Application. It cannot be stressed too strongly that the application is a part of the examination. It represents the applicant. The information entered on the form will be used to determine that the applicant does or does not meet the entrance requirements, and it may be the basis for arriving at the final rating in the examination. Acceptability for an examination is based on the information provided on the application for that examination, even though the applicant may have prior applications on file.

All applications and supporting documents and attachments become the property of the U. S. Civil Service Commission or other civil service board. None are returned.

THE EXAMINATION

The Competitive Examination. If the examination announcement indicated that a written test will be given, a notice will be sent to the applicant telling him when and where to appear for the test. The written test will usually be practical in nature. It will test the candidate's ability to do the job for which he applied, or it will test his ability to learn how to do it.

Studying for the Examination. The student should review the examination announcement carefully to learn as much as possible about the position for which he has applied. The position description will offer some clues as to the subjects which will be tested.

In addition, the examination announcement often has a section called *Scope of Examination* or *Knowledges and Abilities Required.* These sections will help the student in finding out specifically what fields will be tested.

The information in the announcement will also be helpful in choosing suitable study materials. A number of civil service study guides and publications are available at public libraries for self-study in preparing for an examination. Other sources of information are training manuals and publications of a government agency which employs workers in the job for which an application is being made. The applicant may also obtain specific study suggestions by writing or visiting the government department involved. A letter or visit to the agency may also provide specific information as to the exact nature of the position being sought.

Preparing for the Examination. Chances for success on a civil service examination can be increased if common sense is exercised. Nervousness and fatigue are among the most common ressons why applicants fail to do their best on tests.

Applicants should be reminded to:

- Begin preparation early.
- Prepare continuously.
- Locate the place of the examination.
- Relax the night before the test.

- Get up early enough on the day of the examination to allow sufficient time to get to the examination room, with time to spare.
- Dress comfortably.
- Leave excess paraphernalia at home.
- Relax and prepare to listen to the instructions for taking the test.

The Examination Period. Best results are obtained when applicants listen carefully to all instructions, follow directions, and ask questions of the test administrator or monitor when they do not understand what to do.

Civil service examination papers are generally identified by number only. Candidates are assigned numbers for this purpose.

Overall time limits are set for the written test. Candidates should gauge their time carefully in order to complete the test within the time limits. One method is to divide the total time in minutes by the number of questions to get the approximate time one has for each question.

Many capable people are unsuccessful in examinations because they fail to read the questions carefully. It is important that all questions be answered, and that, if time permits, answers be reviewed.

The Unassembled Test. If one applies for a position that does not involve a written test, the rating is based on the experience, education, and training described in the application for work, and any additional information secured by the civil service board, or the Area Office of the U. S. Civil Service Commission, as well as through an oral interview process before a Qualifications Appraisal Panel. Qualifications may also be verified with former employers and supervisors.

In federal civil service announcements that cover several grades or salary levels, the applicant is rated for those he qualifies for, but he is not rated for any grade that pays less than the minimum pay he stated he would accept.

The Oral Interview. The basic purpose of the Qualifications Appraisal Panel is to orally evaluate the candidates' qualifications, not otherwise measured by a written test, to perform the duties of the position or class for which they are being interviewed, and to establish a ranking for qualified candidates.

The qualifications appraisal or oral interview is generally the final step in the examination process. Its importance is demonstrated by the fact that 40 percent or more of the total score may be assigned to this part of the examination.

In conducting the appraisal, members of the panel are not particularly influenced by the fact that all competitors have passed earlier portions of the examination. Each part of the examination is important in its own right.

An underlying and basic question which concerns each member of the panel is: *If I were the appointing authority, would I hire this individual with reasonable confidence that he could handle the job successfully?*

Preparing for the Interview. Applicants can prepare for the oral interview by thinking about the above question, and having information about his work experience and job-related courses well in mind. Preparation for the interview will prove its worth. If the student has thought through the manner in which he will present his experience and education, he will be able to bring forth points that will help to establish his qualifications for the position.

Rating the Competitors. The panel will rate competitors on competitive factors, which frequently include the following:

- *Impression.* Behavior and dress appropriate to the position - tact, poise, neatness and grooming, and maturity.
- *Presentation.* Communication skills appropriate to the position.
- *Readiness.* Background and abilities as preparation for this position. Background includes education and experience, work record, self-improvement efforts. Abilities are considered in terms of ability to deal with the practical problems of the job; ability to work effectively with people; ability to adjust to changes in assignment, policies, procedures, etc.

Procedures of Interviewing. Generally, the following procedures are followed in interviewing the candidate:

- Panel members review the candidate's application, to familiarize themselves with the applicant's background, work experience, and educational qualifications.
- The candidate is brought in and introduced to the panel members.

- The Chairman of the panel explains the purpose of the interview and asks the candidate to describe the major duties and responsibilities of his present or last job.
- The panel members ask questions that will encourage the candidate to explain his work experience and qualifications.
- After the candidate's experience and qualifications have been fully developed in the interview, and panel members have no more questions, the Chairman will ask the applicant if he wishes to add anything that he feels has been overlooked.
- After the candidate leaves the room, the panel members discuss how well the candidate's qualifications meet the standards for the position, and assign a rating.

Ratings are based exclusively on the information brought out during the interview, or on the candidate's observable behavior in the interview. The ratings are estimates of the candidate's potential success in the position for which he is competing. The ratings are not judgments of his effectiveness in his current job.

THE ELIGIBILITY LIST

Persons who are found to meet the requirements in the announcement are called *eligibles*. The eligible list is made up of those persons who have passed the written and/or the oral examination, and have received a grade.

Scoring for Eligibility. Scoring procedures differ in detail, although the general principles are the same. The papers are usually graded by number, whether or not they are hand-scored or scored by machine. That is, the individual who marks the papers knows only the identification number and not the name of the applicant. Not until all the papers have been graded, will they be matched with names. If other tests, such as for training and experience, or qualifications appraisal (oral interview) ratings have been given, scores will be combined. Different parts of the examination usually have different weights. For example, the written test may count 60 percent of the final grade, and the oral interview rating 40 percent. Veterans may have a certain number of points added to their grades.

Placement on the List. After the final grade has been determined, the names are placed in grade order and an *eligibility list* is established. There are various methods for resolving ties between those who get the same final grade. One of the most common is to place first the name of the person whose

application was received first. Job offers are made from the eligible list in the order the names appear on it. An eligible's chances of getting a job, therefore, depend on his standing on this list, and how fast agencies are filling jobs from the list.

Candidates are notified of their grade and rank order as soon as all of the computations have been made. This is done as rapidly as possible.

Cooperation with the Applicant. Practically all civil service jurisdictions want applicants to understand how their programs operate, and most will permit candidates to review their test papers. Usually this can be done during a specified time after notifications of disqualification or eligibility have been sent.

Filling Jobs from the Eligibility List. When a job is to be filled from the eligibility list, the agency asks the Area Office of the U. S. Civil Service Commission, or the appropriate civil service jurisdiction, for the names of people on the list of eligibles for that job.

Generally, when the civil service office receives this request, it sends to the agency the names of the three people highest on the list. Or, if the job which is to be filled has specialized requirements, the office sends the agency, from the general list, the names of the top three persons who meet those requirements.

The appointing officer makes a choice from among the three people whose names were sent to him. If the elected person accepts the appointment, the names of the others are put back on the list to be considered for future openings.

For most vacancies, the appointing officer has his choice of any one of the top three eligibles on the list. For this reason, it is not automatic that the person whose name is on top of the list always gets the appointment.

APPOINTMENT TO A POSITION

Kinds of Appointments. Most appointments in the federal civil service are either career (or permanent), term-career (conditional), or temporary.

A temporary appointment does not ordinarily last more than one year. A temporary worker cannot be promoted, cannot transfer to another job, and is not under the retirement system.

A term appointment is made for work on a specific project that will last more than one year but less than four years. A term employee can be promoted or reassigned to another position within the project for which he is hired. He is usually not under the retirement system. Names of persons who accept temporary or term appointments will remain on the list of eligibles from which they were appointed. Thus, they will remain eligible for permanent jobs that are normally filled by career-conditional or career appointments.

A career-conditional appointment leads after three years service to a career appointment. For the first year, the employee serves a probationary period. During this time, he must demonstrate that he can do a satisfactory job, and may be dismissed if he fails to do so. A career-conditional employee has promotion and transfer privileges. After he completes his probation, he cannot be removed except for cause. However, in reduction-in-force (layoff) actions, career-conditional employees are dismissed ahead of career employees.

A career employee serves a probationary period as described above, and has promotion and transfer privileges. After he completes his probation, he is in the last group to be affected in layoffs.

Veterans' Preference. Veterans may be eligible for additional benefits in getting a public-service job. Examination requirements may be waived, and in some circumstances, Vietnam veterans may be hired without competing against other applicants.

Extra examination credits in the form of extra points are added to the veteran's final examination passing score., Disabled veterans or their wives, widowers of certain veterans, and widowed or divorced mothers of some veterans who died in service, or who are totally and permanently disabled by a service-connected disability, usually get 10 extra points. Most other honorably discharged veterans get five points added to the earned scores received on examinations, depending upon length or dates of service.

General Requirements for Appointment. There are certain requirements that must be met before appointment. These requirements are over and above the requirement that one must be able to do the work of the position for which he is being considered.

These requirements include:

- *Age:* The usual minimum age limit for a federal job is 18 years, but for most jobs, high school graduates may apply at 16, provided that local child-labor laws permit. An

application can be made if the student expects to graduate from high school, or to reach his 18th birthday within six months from the date of filing, but he may not be appointed until he meets the age requirement.

- *Citizenship:* Candidates must usually be American citizens, or file an intent to become an American citizen.

- *Physical Condition:* The candidate must be physically, emotionally, and mentally able to perform the duties of the position. As previously stated, a physically handicapped individual is not automatically disqualified. His abilities are assessed to insure that he is not discriminated against because of his handicap.

- *Residence Requirements:* Residence requirements for many public service jobs are waived. However, appointments to some positions in Washington, D.C., are apportioned by law among the States and territories.

  Persons being considered for these positions may be required to submit proof that they meet a one-year residence requirement. When necessary, this proof is requested by the agency considering the candidate for employment.

Security Requirements for Appointment. Before one is hired for the federal civil service, an investigation is made to determine whether the candidate is reliable, trustworthy, of good conduct and character, and loyal to the United States. If the appointment is to a sensitive position where the employee has access to *classified information*, a determination is also made as to whether the individual's employment in the Government service would be clearly consistent with the interests of the national security.

Fingerprints are taken either when one reports for duty or when an investigation has begun. The fingerprints will be sent to the Federal Bureau of Investigation for checking against their records. Applicants must list all convictions other than those for minor traffic violations, or those committed before their 21st birthday and which were finally handled in a juvenile court, or under a youth offender law. Failure to give this information could result in denial or dismissal from federal employment, possible prosecution for perjury, and from employment with other civil service jurisdictions.

ON THE JOB AFTER APPOINTMENT

Probationary Period. After appointment, the worker will serve a probationary period, generally required by most civil service

jurisdictions, which may last from six months to a year. After the worker has served satisfactorily on probation, he will be notified that he has civil service status with all the related rights.

Pay. Generally, salaries of federal, state, county, and other civil service workers are comparable to those paid by private employers for similar work. Civil service salaries are reviewed frequently, and changes made as needed.

There are several pay plans in the public-service career field. Each grade has a set salary range. In all cases, salaries are listed in the civil-service announcement of position openings. Employees are usually hired at the first rate of grade. If they do their work at an acceptable level of competence, they receive within-grade increases at intervals, until the top rate of the grade is reached.

Hours of Work. The usual work week for federal, state, and local government agencies is 40 hours. Most public service employees work 8 hours a day, five days a week, Monday through Friday. In some cases, the nature of the work may call for a different workweek. This is particularly true in public-safety positions. Required overtime can be compensated for either by pay or by compensatory time-off.

Vacation and Sick Leave. Public-service employees earn both vacation and sick-leave credits. Their earnings of vacation and sick leave may be according to the number of years they have been in service. Sick leave can be used for illness serious enough to keep the employee away from his work and for medical and dental appointments. Unused sick leave can be saved for future use. Vacation leave may be used for vacation purposes, and may be used to supplement sick leave for prolonged illness.

After Appointment to the Job. Even after the applicant has located a job in the public-service career field that he likes and can do well, he may think that there is nothing more to be done. This is not true. As the new employee gets to know his job better, he will find that he can prepare himself after working hours for more advanced jobs in the federal agency, or in the state, city, county, or local jurisdiction that employs him.

The employee will want to do his job well and prepare for the years ahead by learning more and more about the work of his agency, and becoming more useful on the job. Career develop-

ment and promotion programs in every agency are designed to make sure that promotions go to the best qualified employees. How fast public-service career employees advance and are promoted depends upon openings in the higher grades, and upon their own ability and effort in getting more education or training to enable them to do better work.

Promotion and Transfer. Agencies consider the qualifications of an employee for promotion as higher grade positions become vacant. Normally, promotional opportunities are limited to those public-service workers who have satisfactorily completed their probationary period. Generally, individuals interested in promotion are required to take a promotional examination to become eligible for advancement. As with open examinations, announcements are made of promotional examinations. *A basic philosophy of public-service agencies is to encourage individuals to take any promotional examination for a position the applicant is qualified for and would like to have.*

Transfers may be made to positions in other agencies. However, in the case of a transfer, the employee has to *find his own job*, by such means as interviews with officials in those agencies. If he can find a vacant position in another agency, and if the hiring officer is interested, arrangements may be made to transfer him. Federal Job Information Centers and local civil service boards may be able to assist employees in locating vacancies.

Retirement. Public-service employment generally has the advantage of well-established retirement systems. The provisions and amounts differ, depending upon the civil service jurisdiction. Generally, government employees contribute a percentage of their pay to their retirement system. This contribution is deducted directly from the employee's paycheck. A disability provision is also included in most retirement programs.

THE FUTURE OF PUBLIC-SERVICE MERIT SYSTEMS

Every American citizen has a continuing interest in the future of the federal government, and of his state, county, municipal, and local jurisdictions. All citizens have an opportunity to participate in the government process, but public-service employees have a special opportunity and responsibility to review and respond to the needs of government.

As a citizen, the student should be aware that it is important to him to protect his interest in government by seeing that only the best qualified persons are selected as public-service employees. The public-service merit system, which insures that

all qualified persons will have the opportunity to compete for jobs in the government service, is important in these ways:

- As citizens, Americans all want public-service jobs to be filled by employees who know how to do their work.
- As job seekers, Americans all want a fair chance to compete for jobs on an equal footing with other candidates.

The public-service career field offers meaningful work, as well as an opportunity to participate in the operations of government. High standards are set for public-service career people, upon whom the success of the federal, state, and local governments depends. Those students who are inspired to participate in government, and who measure up to these high standards, will find exciting and rewarding careers as government service employees.

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

- Interview public-service workers in various federal, state, city, and local agencies to learn more about how they get their jobs.
- Obtain and study job announcements and job bulletins issued by federal, state, county, city, or local civil service offices and jurisdictions to learn about current job opportunities and specific job requirements.
- Set up a personal file of data and information needed to complete an application for work.
- Obtain and fill out various types of application forms for federal, city, county, and state employment, to develop skills in providing information requested.
- Obtain position classification descriptions, examination announcements, position listings, bulletins, application forms, and other materials and aids from civil service offices.
- Obtain copies of civil service study guides and civil service examination aids from a public library. Study the guides, and take sample tests to become acquainted with format of civil service examination questions.
- Take practice civil service examinations, and score and evaluate your own responses. Place special emphasis on discovering your areas of individual strengths and weaknesses.
- Actively participate in planned study programs designed to acquaint the student with various entrance requirements, test forms, and practices for filling civil service positions.
- Participate in a role playing exercise in a qualifications appraisal or oral interview situation, as a member of the

qualifications appraisal panel, and/or as a candidate for a civil service job.

- Observe interviews during role playing exercises to evaluate effectiveness of candidate's responses. Be prepared to discuss techniques used to overcome problems that develop.
- Listen to examples of interviews on tape, and be prepared to rate the candidate exclusively on information brought out during the interview, or on the candidate's observable behavior during the interview.
- Talk to your school guidance counselor or psychologist about your career choice.
- Consult the Dictionary of Occupational Titles and the Occupational Outlook Handbook about skills and the requirements of a variety of occupations in the public-service field.
- View films on how to apply for jobs, for example *Your Job - Applying for It*, *Job Interview - Whom Would You Hire?*, and *Your Job - Fitting In*.

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

- Plan on utilizing role playing exercises to acquaint students with communication skills in qualifications appraisal or oral interview situations.
- Arrange to have representatives of federal, state, county, and city civil service agencies and government offices visit the class and discuss career opportunities and application procedures.
- Provide opportunities for the school counselor or psychologist to discuss various considerations in arriving at occupational or career choice.
- Encourage students to adopt an exploratory attitude aimed at sharpening their awareness of job opportunities in the public-service career field.
- Collect samples of practice civil service test materials and publications and brochures available through civil service commissions and boards to discuss and review with students.
- Conduct simulated civil service tests under actual, timed testing conditions to provide students with test taking experiences.
- Have students score or evaluate their own responses and identify their individual strengths and weaknesses in basic verbal and math areas.
- Encourage students needing to improve their basic skills to enroll in special remedial courses or to perform self study, in order to increase their effectiveness in taking written civil service examinations.

- Obtain copies of various civil service bulletins and announcements. Discuss various job specifications in terms of general and specific education, experience, and hiring requirements.
- Utilize role playing exercises to acquaint students with the purposes and procedures of the qualifications appraisal or oral interview panel. Have students play both the role of the interview panel member (usually 2 or 3) and of the candidate.
- Prepare tapes of different employment interviews and play them for the class to discuss and evaluate.
- Encourage students to use all their senses as qualification panel members to carefully observe what is being communicated by the candidate in the interview.
- Show films on how to apply for a job, for example *Your Job - Applying for It*, *Job Interview - Whom Would You Hire?*, and *Your Job - Fitting In*.

RESOURCES

Dictionary of Occupational Titles, Volume I, Definitions of Titles, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1965.

Dictionary of Occupational Titles, Volume II, Occupational Classification, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1965.

Occupational Outlook Handbook, U. S. Government Printing office, 1972-73 Edition.

Working for the USA, Pamphlet #4, BRE-37, U. S. Civil Service Commission, 1972.

Federal Career Directory, U. S. Civil Service Commission, 1971.

Prepare Yourself for the Postal Examination, AN 2450-R, U. S. Civil Service Commission, 1969.

The following publications of the U. S. Civil Service Commission are available at the local Job Information Center:

Your First Job - A Key to Your Future, BRE-10

Go Government, BRE-14

Washington, D.C., Where the Action Is, BRE-17

Guide to Federal Career Literature, BRE-24

Employment of the Mentally Restored in Federal Service, BRE-6

Employment of the Mentally Retarded in Federal Service, BRE-7

Employment of the Handicapped in Federal Service, BRE-8

Accent on Youth, BRE-19

Orientation to Public Service Occupations, Career Education Curriculum Guide, California State Department of Education, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1973.

Your Job: Fitting In (Movie, 16mm reel, purchase), Coronet Films, 1969.

Your Job: Applying for It (Movie, 16mm reel, purchase), Coronet Films, 1969.

Job Interview: Whom Would You Hire? Ser. 2 (Movie, 16mm reel, purchase), Churchill Films, 1970.

Unit 9

TECHNIQUES OF DECISION MAKING

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Unit 9
TECHNIQUES OF DECISION MAKING

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

1. Ability to define decision making.
2. Ability to learn the decision-making formula.
3. Ability to learn how to state problems simply and accurately.
4. Ability to determine the difference between a symptom and a cause.
5. Ability to determine which facts are most important to a decision.
6. Ability to be able to qualify information according to importance and subject classification.
7. Ability to learn to identify two or more alternative solutions for a problem.
8. Ability to develop an openness to creative ideas.
9. Ability to learn to weigh the consequences of alternative decisions.
10. Ability to select and justify the most appropriate decision.

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

Every person, each day, is faced by numerous situations which require the making of many decisions throughout the course of the day. It is necessary to answer such questions as: *When do I get up in the morning? What clothes will I wear? What will I have for breakfast? Which route will I take to school?*

Working in the field of public service, an individual is constantly faced with a series of situations which require him to take some particular course of action. Many such actions may not require special decision making on his part, because his particular organization has provided ways for him to make these decisions rather automatically. For example, there are department policies, and standard ways of performing certain jobs. A person also has his own past experiences of success which enable him to easily make certain decisions for such things as: the hours he should work, his rate of pay, and the required forms which must be completed for certain kinds of activities. All of these things are handled rather automatically on the job, because people have methods of handling certain things in certain ways. These become habit. They fit within a regular pattern.

There are many situations faced by a decision maker where the consequences of his action are so minor that it doesn't really matter which way he decides to solve a given problem as long as it is resolved: for example, what pencil to choose; the color of the paper on a final report; the diverting of automobiles during a traffic jam.

However, there are also other situations where the way a manager or supervisor solves a problem has great impact on an organization. Sometimes a person doesn't have a chance to actually know what is right and what is wrong. Judgment might have no well established basis. The opportunity to select between two alternatives of equal value does not exist. The situation is not clearcut. It requires thought and careful judgment; it has far-reaching consequences on the organization--affecting the quality of service, costs, schedules, the relationships between people in a working unit. Appropriate action must be taken in such assorted areas as overtime, employee dismissal, grievances, types of equipment to purchase, ways to reduce waste. The effectiveness and efficiency of the decision-making process of one individual can have far-reaching impact on a public-service organization.

Good decisions allow individuals to control and monitor their operations. Bad ones can cause worse problems and hinder the effectiveness of an organization. Things just don't happen by chance. They are made to happen. They are arranged. They can quite often be developed over a period of time which has been required by the nature of the problem or activity.

WHAT IS DECISION MAKING?

Decision making involves a conscious choice or selection of one behavior alternative from a group of two or more behavior alternatives.

Thus, there are two basic elements in a decision-making process: one, the matter of conscious choice, and the other of alternatives. *To decide, then, really means to cut off, to come to a conclusion, to end.*

A FORMULA FOR DECISION MAKING

Decision-making is a skill that can be developed. One way in which it can be developed is through a formula, a procedure which provides a formal process or system involving the basic rules of decision-making. There are no born decision makers, but some people appear to act very efficiently on the basis of hunches. These people may never be seen with charts and graphs, or performing a lot of analytical tasks. However, they've probably developed their own way of sifting facts and of solving problems. Good decision makers usually know their personnel; have prior experience; they can put together difficult possibilities quickly. They have their own personal *formulae* of decision making.

An effective technique to help make decisions is through the aid of a formula — a kind of check-off list to help find answers to difficult situations, to resolve problems, to handle unique situations. Such a formula enables one to take advantage of his past experiences, to see the whole picture, and to utilize all the facts he can find which are applicable to the solution.

A decision-making formula worthy of our consideration has six steps:

- *Isolate* - State the apparent problem or situation with which you plan to deal.
- *Analyse* - Gather the facts.
- *Diagnose* - Organize and interpret the facts.
- *Prescribe procedures* - State the real problem or situation.
- *Implement procedures* - Develop alternative solutions.
- *Evaluate* - Select the most appropriate alternative. Decide.

We will consider each of these steps separately. However, it should be kept in mind that these separate steps are really all related and part of the whole process of decision making.

Isolate the Problem. A problem can be a situation, question, matter, or person that is perplexing or difficult, that

obstructs the way to achieving a goal or objective.

Almost everyone has problems: students have study problems when they don't know answers to test questions; people have money problems when they can't pay all of their bills. Individuals have problems with people who are unfriendly; problems with their girlfriends or boyfriends; growth problems; health problems; psychological problems.

There are professionals and specialists to whom people can go with their problems. A person takes his malfunctioning car to a mechanic, he calls on the plumber to fix leaky pipes, contacts the doctor when he doesn't feel well. These specialists are skilled problem solvers in a particular area. They have had special training and experience. They may even have had to pass examinations to obtain certificates or licenses.

In decision making, one must recognize problems as well as symptoms of problems. It is particularly important to be able to separate symptoms from causes.

What is the Real Problem? Problems are often presented in very broad terms: "Gee, John, they've really fouled up in accounting. Go straighten them out." "Boy, do we have a morale problem." "We have to introduce that new system right away." "Those two managers just don't get along."

Consider the question of morale, for example. Is morale really the problem, or is it more accurately the symptom of another problem? Chances are that it is a symptom of a problem rather than the real problem itself. The problem situation might be poor organizational structure, bad working conditions, an unfriendly supervisor, unfair treatment, or a number of other difficulties.

To help in determining what is a symptom and what is a cause, several questions must be asked:

- *"How else might the problem be stated?"* The placement of accountants in one isolated department, without the opportunity to discuss actual income and outgo with supervisors, has given us unrealistic budget figures.

  The lack of adding machines, a broken calculator, dim light, uncomfortable room temperatures, and individual working spaces has caused a greater number of absences.

  The accounting manager has openly criticized senior staff members in front of their fellow workers.

  The department secretaries were all forced to work overtime for staying five minutes past their lunch hours.

- *"What else is involved?"*

  If there are no communications between accountants and supervisors, neither group will know the reasons behind the requests or needs of the others.

  There has been talk about a computer eliminating some of the accounting jobs.

  The senior accountants have been slow to pick up the new accounting procedures.

  This is the tenth time this month that the financial unit has been unable to take care of the people in line because the secretaries were not here.

- *"Are there similar problems in other departments?"*

  The people in supplies have been ordering the wrong equipment.

  There have been layoffs in several departments.

  Several department managers are competing for the job of assistant director of our organization.

  None of the other departments have problems with secretaries.

- *"Is this a problem or a symptom?"*

  The real problem is that the accountants have not been properly informed of the organizational structure, and thus have very poor understanding of the departments which comprise the organization.

  Another organization nearby has announced opportunities for accountants at higher pay, and in new offices.

  The accounting manager and his senior staff do not plan departmental modifications together.

  Only one of the secretaries has a watch and it is five minutes slow. They play bridge at lunch time several days each month.

- *"How do others perceive the problem?"*

  Talk to all the accountants and managers individually.

  Talk to personnel about accounting re-classification.

  Interview the senior staff.

Visit with the secretaries.

What are the Problems? What are the Symptoms? If your automobile won't start, it might not be because it's old, the engine is dirty, or your windshield wipers don't work — the car may be out of gas. It might, however, be time to give it some other attention, too. If you can recognize the symptoms, you can avoid a lot of problems.

Analyze the Facts. When the problem is recognized, then all the facts required for a successful decision can, and should be accumulated. Too often, people think they have all the facts, but they don't. It's like trying to put together a jigsaw puzzle, and recognizing, after many frustrating hours, that six pieces are missing.

Frequently, the decision maker feels that because he is in a particular situation, he knows it better than anyone else can know it. The issue may, therefore, be somewhat clouded. This cloudiness may prevent him from seeing what is actually there.

How many times have individuals had to make a decision and found that they didn't have the right facts or sufficient quantities of facts to insure a good decision? Both the quality and effectiveness of most decisions can be seriously reduced without good facts.

When gathering facts, one should write them down, and gather them into one comprehensive list. The decision maker can then visualize them all at the same time, and is much less likely to overlook or forget any of them. In dealing with large amounts of information, he can grade sub-topics and keep track of them in a systematic way.

How many facts should be gathered? The number usually depends on the nature and complexity of the situation.

Basically it means that the amount of information accumulated depends upon such factors as:

- The amount of time available.
- Is it an emergency situation or not?
- The seriousness of the situation.
- The availability of information, etc.

Where are the Needed Facts Obtained?

- First, he might turn to available records. He usually has financial records, personal records, records of transactions, and records of activities.

- Second, he may have references: newspapers, journals, old letters, the like.

- Third, and very importantly, he has other people, or he has a staff. There is a great deal of expertise within most public-service organizations: specialists in economics, human relations, law, health, safety, and other areas; all responsive to the request of the decision-maker. An outside expert, or consultant, may be required in difficult situations.

- Finally, look at other organizational units which have been confronted with similar problems. Quite often, through investigation, the decision-maker finds that precedents have been set which he may have to follow. In law, for example, he may have to base a decision on the verdict of a case held on the same issue, long ago in a distant place.

Sources of information are unlimited. It takes a great deal of initiative to uncover them.

How should the facts be obtained? Here again, there are questions we must ask ourselves:

- What kinds of facts are available?

- What information is available?

- Is there enough?

- Is help needed, and where can it be obtained?

- Who else might have the information needed?

Going back to the morale problem, which was found to be the result of a basic lack of communication between accountants and departmental managers, how might the decision-maker proceed?

In gathering the facts, he would have to obtain both the accountant's records and the manager's records. The decision-maker might call upon organizations of similar size and activity, to see how they handle difficulties of this nature. He might talk to one or more senior accountants in a large public accounting firm or contact the governmental auditors. He might even write letters to colleagues seeking their advice.

The decision-maker might hold a meeting of selected members of his staff, or assign a task force of accountants and managers to look into the matter.

As he begins to gather his facts, the decision-maker will discover that other information is required. Additionally, he will uncover sources of other facts. The quality of the facts he gathers ultimately affects the quality of his decisions. The better the data, the better the opportunity to make a good decision.

Organizing the Facts. Once the facts have been collected, it becomes very important that they be organized to help the decision-maker interpret what they really mean. To do this, it's helpful to set them up in categories -- to pull like items together.

This procedure helps people to know whether certain facts are more important than others, and thus deserve special consideration.

Grouping the Facts. There are several categories into which information can be grouped, such as: cost, time, past precedent, procedures, leadership, quality, and productivity:

Cost. In cost considerations, one must look at unit costs, personnel costs, material costs, equipment costs, mailing costs, etc. If, for example, an individual is attempting to determine the cost of mailing out new contracts to several hundred vendors with whom the agency deals, the following costs may have to be considered, among others:

- Duplication costs per duplicated copy.
- Salary costs of writing new contract.
- Salary costs of typing contracts.
- Costs of new contract forms.
- Costs of envelopes.
- Costs of writing departmental letters.

Time. Time is usually calculated in terms of the personnel costs or salaries paid. The basic periods of time — hours, days, weeks, months, years — are quite often combined in terms of man-hours, man-weeks, man-years, etc., to enable the numbers of hour units to be multiplied by salary allocations. Equipment time, particularly in this age of computers, can be quite expensive.

Past Precedent. This is a category relating together data on similar situations in the past, and to consider the decisions arrived at in those situations for their bearing on the decision to be made in the present.

Procedures. These are also important. Most public-service organizations have certain ways of accomplishing functions or providing services. They have been proven over a period of time to be most appropriate to particular situations. Here, too, is where organizational policy making may be involved and possibly changed and modified.

Guidelines. This would include the directions and decisions which brought about a particular situation, and permit review of the factors which were present when prior decisions were made.

Quality. The quality of facts is important. There must be an assurance that the right data, and the most applicable figures and information, are available.

Productivity. This category would enable a comparison between various activities which would bring about particular results. It would provide an opportunity to look at the output of a department or project team.

In pulling together like items, one can see trends, certain facts which may be more important than others, and areas where there are gaps in the information.

In organizing facts, the following questions should be asked:

- Which facts are related to each other?
- Are these facts related to any not listed?
- What is the extent of their relationship?
- Are they relevant to this situation?
- What is the level of reliability of the facts?
- Can the problem be more clearly defined with the information listed?
- How can it be done?
- How much time is there for further organization?
- Are these facts recurring or one time events?

Stating the Real Problem. Having examined the data, the

decision-maker is now in a position to state the *real* problem or situation with which he has to deal. He now knows whether he has a problem, or just a misunderstanding. Was the original statement just a symptom, or was it a real situation? It might be that there are several problems. Whatever the situation, it must be stated in clear and simple terms. It should be written down.

A problem is a situation which deviates from an expected standard, or norm of desired performance. In decision making, one starts with an *apparent* problem. The decision maker gathers more information in order to more accurately identify the situation with which he is going to deal.

Is there a real problem or just symptoms? The data have been gathered and organized. Now it is necessary to zero in on the actual situation, and to see whether there is a real problem. Was the initial identification a symptom of a problem, or was it a real cause? Is there one problem, or several?

If the decision-maker neglected to gather the facts, and then to organize, analyze, and categorize them, he might find himself working on the wrong situation. He could spend a great deal of time and effort on symptoms, and could actually be working on the wrong problem. Certainly, he could overlook a number of relevant factors.

If a medical doctor spent all of his time studying symptoms, he might be too late to address an actual problem and his patient could die. Similarly, in a public-service organization, *if too much time and energy is spent in chasing symptoms instead of causes, problems can become crises.*

What objective is to be achieved? Remember, one must still think about decision making in terms of fulfilling objectives.

When it is known what kind of performance should be achieved, and what kind of performance has been received, the necessary effort is simple – merely to measure the difference between those two points. The decision-maker must identify the deviation and its extent. He will also have to specifically state the standard, or norm, toward which he is trying to return.

In other words, not only does he have to state the problem to which he is going to address himself, but he must specifically state the objective he wants to achieve.

In the previous illustration of the public-service organization and the communication problems between the accountants

and managers, the objectives could, perhaps, be restated in this manner: *it is necessary to design a realistic and accurate budget for costs.*

This stage would complete the problem identification part of the decision-making process. Now, he can get on with decision-making itself.

Developing Alternative Solutions. With the real problem determined and stated, the decision-maker is now in a position to begin the development of alternative solutions. Notice that there is an "s" on the end of "solution." Decision-makers should be interested in as many solutions to a problem as can be developed.

This particular phase of the decision making process should be very free-wheeling. It should produce a number of ideas. The decision-maker should keep his mind open. He should not be too judgmental, but should avoid premature criticism. *Criticism given too early can destroy new ideas that could be beneficial.*

Picture a staff meeting, where the assistant director of the agency presents an entirely new approach to providing recreational opportunities for senior citizens. He is interrupted by his superior, the director, who tells him that his idea is ridiculous. It is unlikely that he would ever bring up the subject again unless he were extremely persistent and unafraid of the director. *Creative thinking can be squelched by a superior who criticizes without having much of a basis for criticism.*

The number of alternatives that can be developed at any one point in time is a function of how much time is spent in developing these alternatives. It's always helpful to stop and ask: "If I didn't have any rules to follow in this organization, would I handle the situation any differently?" Or, "What else could I do?" Perhaps it is desirable to modify several previously stated alternatives to produce one better alternative.

Present all alternatives for consideration. By considering all ideas as initially feasible, they can be brought out into the open. Such occasions are often called *brain storming* sessions. Regardless of how silly an idea might seem at first, perhaps when it is considered in the light of other possibilities it may turn out to be a fairly useable solution; or maybe a portion of that idea might be able to be combined with another idea and thereby produce the ultimate solution.

What, for example, would have happened if someone stifled the

idea of the paper clip? "Isn't that stupid, who'd want to hold pieces of paper together with bent up wire?" Evidently, people laughed at Columbus, and his idea of a round world; they laughed at John Fulton and his steamship; and even at a young man named Fosbury, who high-jumped backwards. Regardless of ridicule, however, each of these men, in his solution to the problem at hand, succeeded in his particular project.

How many people have been shot-down in creative projects, by comments such as these: "We've tried it and it didn't work," "That's against policy," "It would cost too much," "He hasn't got the experience," "He's too young."

List the Alternatives. Looking at the positive side of the argument, there should be positive consideration of all methods, objects, and persons available, to satisfy the needs of decision-making. Once again, write down all of the alternatives, so that they can be comprehensively considered.

To do this, one can list all of the alternatives across the top of a chart and then systematically consider all the factors under each alternative. This chart, or *matrix*, as it is called, can then be used to evaluate the best solution.

As an example, let us assume legislation is passed in each state to award home and business loans and educational benefits to veterans of the Vietnam war. Then a matrix somewhat like this can be made:

ALTERNATIVES

	#1	#2	#3	#4	#5
Staff involved					
Labor costs					
Material costs					
Equipment costs					
Services included					
Services excluded					
Facilities needed					
Number of veterans processed per day					
Publicity requirements					
Applicable policy					
New policies needed, etc.					

The list can be long, but it is well worth it. If, for example, one is considering attending a community college or university, but can't make up his mind. He can develop a chart with all of the things that are important to him on the side of the chart, and the schools under consideration across

the top. Then a five-point scale can be applied to each item, with five being the highest mark and zero the lowest. The school with the most points might be the most likely alternative under all the prevailing circumstances. Still, one cannot be completely definite on this basis alone, so it is necessary to move to the next step in the decision-making process, that of selection.

Selecting the Best Alternative Solution. The most important part of the decision-making process is the selection of the most appropriate alternative: *deciding*. This is the stage during which criticism is appropriate. Judgment must be made on all facets of the problem and the alternative solutions. The effectiveness of each of the solutions must be evaluated in terms of the objectives towards which the decision-maker is oriented. He must look carefully at, and criticize severely, such items as cost, timeliness, workability, acceptability, and implementation.

- Can the solution be made to work?
- Will the staff cooperate?
- Will those who are served make the necessary adjustments?
- Are there the skills in the organization to carry out the program?

List the Consequences of the Decision. As these and other items are considered, it is desirable to write down all of the consequences of each of the decisions. List the pro's and con's. It is not enough to add them together and make a decision on that basis, such as in the selection of a college, in the previous section. Not only does one use some type of scale, but he assigns different weights to different items. Using the previous college selection chart, the decision-maker might have to weight costs higher than the availability of co-educational dormitories, or the scholastic reputation of the school over the strength of its football team.

Be a Devil's Advocate. The more desirable alternatives should be scrutinized in a negative way. Take the opposite position, that is, play the *devil's advocate*. Mentally implement the plan and consider the adverse consequences.

Take one of the most favorable-looking alternatives. Ask:

- "Will it affect other departments?"
- "What could go wrong?"
- "What are the potential sources of breakdown?"

- "What new problem might it create?"
- "Where would the resistance be?"

Consider the extent to which these consequences will probably come about and the degree of seriousness of each one. Select second and even third choices in order to plan for contingencies.

Scrutinize the Final Alternative Thoroughly. Once the alternatives have been narrowed to only one, which appears to fill the need, then this one alternative should be subjected to one final round of positive questions:

- Will this decision fulfill the original goal?
- Can the agency live with the decision permanently?
- Is the timing of the decision right?
- Does the decision bring about the greatest benefit for the greatest number?

Involve Your Superiors. It is often necessary and desirable to go to the superiors with the decision. Ordinarily, the problem would be presented, with the attendant factors affecting it, and the alternative solutions which could resolve it. Then the decision-maker would indicate his reasons, with their consequences, for selection of the particular alternative.

Implement the Decision. After a decision is made, it must be implemented. The necessary steps must be initiated to carry it out. The whole management cycle of planning, organizing, and controlling must be brought into action, as well as other available management tools.

SUMMATION

No phase of the management cycle or any other organizational function could be carried out if decisions were not made. Planning, organizing, controlling, as well as motivating, communicating, and setting standards; these all require endless strings of decisions or choices. This is why the final process of decision making is so important.

Good decisions are the result of understanding responsibilities, involving others, knowing the organization, understanding one's own strengths and weaknesses, and being accountable for decisions made.

In understanding the responsibilities involved, one must know where to get information and be cognizant of the extent to which people can take action.

Through involving others, they gain a sense of ownership in the decision, and become more committed. They remove their defense mechanisms.

Knowing an organization requires an awareness of its organizational history and objectives, where the power centers lie, the limits of one's authority, and the way in which work is actually accomplished.

One's understanding of himself and his own shortcomings insures that he will seek out expertise he does not possess himself, and will develop ways to improve his own skills.

The individual should have this motto: *Remember, when you get right down to it, one person may have to decide - YOU!*

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

- Prepare a definition of *decision making*.
- Write a brief paper on the decision-making formula.
- Participate in a class discussion about decision making in a selected public-service agency. Try to identify top, middle, and low-level decisions.
- Prepare a definition of the term *problem*.
- Interview a public-service official to identify a problem within his organization. Follow with a class discussion.
- Prepare a brief paper describing three examples of symptoms and their causes.
- Participate in a problem-solving case study.
- Write a brief paper on why facts must be gathered to aid in the decision-making process.
- Identify the kinds of facts and resources you must use to prepare for making decisions about a teacher-assigned topic.
- Participate in a discussion about fact finding.
- Develop with the class, and have at least 20 students complete, a survey questionnaire with open-ended questions on ways in which your school can be improved. Organize responses according to subject and year ranking of importance.

- Participate in a class discussion on the results of the questionnaire survey.
- After the class has decided on one or more ways in which the school can be improved, prepare a report on one of the objectives including:

  statement of an objective,

  facts needed and how obtained,

  categorizing the facts.

- Deliver an oral version of your report. Respond to questions and comments from the class.
- Choose five articles from the newspaper on five different topics: sports, politics, crime, etc. State the actual problem being addressed.
- Participate in a class discussion about problem identification, and problem statements. Sharpen your problem statements if necessary.
- Participate in a class discussion about problems identified and possible alternative solutions.
- Using the example of the State legislature passing a bill awarding home and business loans and educational benefits to veterans of the Vietnam War, develop a set of alternative plans as to how the legislation may be carried out.

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

- Have students define *decision making*.
- Assign students a paper on the decision-making formula.
- Conduct a class discussion about decision-making in a selected public service agency.
- Have students prepare their own definitions of the term *problem*.
- Assign students interviews with public-service officials to identify selected organizational problems.
- Conduct a class discussion on problems in public-service organizations.
- Have students develop and discuss reports and three examples of symptoms and their causes.

- Select and assign a case study to the class in problem solving.

- Assign a paper on why facts must be gathered to aid in the decision-making process.

- Prepare a list of considerations in several public-service agencies. Have each student select one consideration around which he will gather essential facts to make a decision.

- Conduct a discussion on fact finding.

- Assign the class a survey project, entitled "How Can Our School be Improved?" Have students develop their own questionnaire and administer it to at least 20 students. Ask them to organize their results according to subject and rank of importance.

- Organize a class discussion on the results of the surveys.

- Once one or more items of possible school improvement have been agreed upon, assign the students a report to contain the following:

  statement of an objective,

  facts needed and how obtained,

  categorizing of facts.

- Organize oral presentations of student reports.

- Assign students the reading of five articles from a newspaper on five different topics: sports, politics, crime, etc. Have them state the actual problem being discussed.

- Conduct a class discussion on problem identification and problem statements.

- Assign a brief paper on the symptoms of five problems and the causes in a public service agency selected by each student.

- Conduct a class discussion on the problems and solutions identified.

- Using the example of the new bill for veterans of the Vietnam war, have students develop a set of alternatives.

- Insure that the students are open to new and abstract suggestions.

- Direct oral presentations of students in which they review their original problems, the sources and categories of facts, the alternatives available for solution, their respective consequences, and their ultimate decisions. Have students challenge one another's decisions.

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Argumentation and Debate: Rational Decision Making, A. J. Freeley, Wadsworth Publications, 1971.

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Decision-Making and Vocational Development, E. L. Herr, Houghton Mifflin, 1972.

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Decision, American Oil Co., Dan Hess Production, 1968.

Appendix A

RESOURCE SUPPLIERS

Appendix A

RESOURCE SUPPLIERS

This appendix is a listing of suppliers of resources itemized at the end of each unit of the individual sections.

ABC - TV
Associate Jules Power Productions
1330 Avenue of the Americas
New York, N.Y. 10019

Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.
Reading, Massachusetts 01867

Alba House
c/o St. Paul Publications
2187 Victory Boulevard
Staten Island, N.Y. 10314

Aldine Publishing Company
529 South Wabash Avenue
Chicago, Illinois 60605

Allyn and Bacon
470 Atlantic Avenue
Boston, Massachusetts 02210

American Elsevier Publishing Co.
52 Vanderbilt Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10017

American Institutes for Research
135 North Bellefield
Pittsburg, Pennsylvania 15213

American Management Association
135 West 50th Street
New York, N.Y. 10020

American Oil Company
910 South Michigan
Chicago, Illinois 60680

Appleton-Century-Crofts
440 Park Avenue South
New York, N.Y. 10016

Armour Company
c/o John Sutherland Productions
401 North Wabash
Chicago, Illinois 60611

Association Films
600 Madison Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10022

AV - ED Films
7934 Santa Monica Boulevard
Hollywood, California 90046

Avon Educational Services
c/o Association Films
600 Madison Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10022

Bantam Books
School and Marketing Division
666 Fifth Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10019

Barnes & Noble
105 Fifth Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10003

Basic Books Publications
404 Park Avenue South
New York, N.Y. 10016

Norman Bean
75 West Taxco Port
Simi, California 93065

Bellman Publishing Company
Box 172
Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138

Bobbs-Merrill Company
Subsidiary, Howard W. Sams & Co.
4300 West 62nd Street
Indianapolis, Indiana 46268

Brandon Films
221 West 57 Street
New York, N.Y. 10019

Brown, William C., Company
135 South Locust Street
Dubuque, Iowa 52001

Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction
University of Wisconsin
1312 West Johnson Street
Madison, Wisconsin 53706

Cahners Publishing Company
221 Columbus Avenue
Boston, Massachusetts 02116

Churchill Films
6671 Sunset Boulevard
Los Angeles, California 90028

College Entrance Book Examining Board
Public Order Office
Box 592
Princeton, New Jersey 08540

Columbia University Press
562 West 113 Street
New York, N.Y. 10025

Connecticut Mutual Insurance
c/o Association Films, Inc.
600 Madison Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10022

Coronet Instructional Films
65 E. South Water Street
Chicago, Illinois 60601

Creative Visuals
Box 1911
Big Spring, Texas 79720

Crown Publishers
419 Park Avenue South
New York, N.Y. 10016

Curriculum Materials Corporation
1319 Vine Street
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19107

De Rochemont, Louis, Associates
225 East 46th Street
New York, N.Y. 10017

Dodd, Mead & Company
79 Madison Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10016

Doubleday and Company
501 Franklin Avenue
Garden City, N.Y. 11531

Educational Systems Development
Box 457
Royal Oak, Michigan 48068

Encyclopedia Britannica
425 North Michigan Avenue
Chicago, Illinois 60611

Evan, M., and Company
East Washington Square
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19105

Fearon Publishers
2165 Park Boulevard
Palo Alto, California 94306

Ferguson, J. C., Publishing Company
6 North Michigan Avenue
Chicago, Illinois 60602

Filmstrip House
43[illegible] Park Avenue South
New York, N.Y. 10016

Free Press
c/o Macmillan Company
866 Third Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10022

Glencoe Press
c/o Macmillan Company
866 Third Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10022

Globe Book Company
175 Fifth Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10010

Gordon Publishers
Box 459, Bowling Green Station
New York, N.Y. 10004

Grove Press
53 East 11th Street
New York, N.Y. 10003

Gryphon Press
220 Montgomery Street
Highland Park, New Jersey 08904

Hale, E. M., and Company Publishers
1201 South Hastings Way
Eau Claire, Wisconsin 54701

Harcourt Brace Jovanovich
757 Third Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10017

Harper and Row Publishers
College Department
49 East 33rd Street
New York, N.Y. 10016

Harvard University Graduate School
School Business Administration
Soldiers Field
Boston, Massachusetts 02163

Harvard University Press
79 Garden Street
Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138

Hawthorn Books
70 Fifth Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10011

Holt, Rinehart, and Winston
383 Madison Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10022

Home Economics Education Association
c/o National Education Association
of the United States
Publication-Sales Section
1201 16th Street, Northwest
Washington, D.C. 10036

Houghton Mifflin Company
110 Tremont Street
Boston, Massachusetts 02107

Imperial International Learning
247 West Court Street
Kankakee, Illinois 60901

Indiana University Audio-Visual
Center
Field Services Department
Bloomington, Indiana 47401

Instructional Materials Laboratory
University of Texas
Austin, Texas

International Publications Service
114 E. 32nd Street
New York, N.Y. 10016

International Universities Press
239 Park Avenue S
New York, N.Y. 10003

Iowa Center for Education in
Politics
University of Iowa
AV Center
Iowa City, Iowa 52240

Irwin-Dorsey Press
1818 Ridge Road
Homewood, Illinois 60430

Krieger, R. E., Publishing Company
P. O. Box 542
Huntington, N.Y. 11743

Laidlaw Brothers
Division of Doubleday & Co.
Thatcher and Madison Streets
River Forest, Illinois 60305

Lippincott, J. B., Company
East Washington Square
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19105

Longmans, Green Publishing
48 Grosvenor Street
London W 1, England

Louisville Public Schools
Division of Curriculum
Louisville, Kentucky 40201

Lyons and Carnahan-Educational Publishers
407 East 25th Street
Chicago, Illinois 60616

Macmillan Company
866 Third Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10022

Metromedia Analearn
235 Park Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10003

McCall's Pattern Company
230 Park Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10017

McGraw-Hill Book Company
330 West 42nd Street
New York, N.Y. 10036

McKay, David, Company
750 Third Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10036

NASCO
Fort Atkinson, Wisconsin 53538

National Council of Teachers of English
1111 Kenyon Road
Urbana, Illinois 61801

National Education Association of the United States
Publication-Sales Section
1201 16th Street, Northwest
Washington, D.C. 10036

National Laboratory for Higher Education
Durham, North Carolina 27707

National Recreation & Parks Association
1700 Pennsylvania Avenue, Northwest
Washington, D.C. 20006

New America Library
1301 Avenue of the Americas
New York, N.Y. 10019

Noble and Noble Publishers
750 Third Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10017

Northwestern University Press
1735 Benson Avenue
Evanston, Illinois 60201

Norton Company
Audio Visual Services
New Bond Street
Worcester, Massachusetts 01606

Odyssey Press
3300 W. 62nd Street
Indianapolis, Indiana 46268

Pendell Publishing Company
Box 1660
Midland, Michigan 48640

Penguin Books
7110 Ambassador Road
Baltimore, Maryland 21207

Penney, J. C., Company
1301 Avenue of the Americas
New York, N.Y. 10019

Pergamon Press
Maxwell House, Fairview Park
Elmsford, N.Y. 10523

Personal Products Company
Education Department
Mill Town, New Jersey 08850

Pitman Publishing Corporation
20 East 46th Street
New York, N.Y. 10017

Praeger Publishers
Subsidiary, Encyclopaedia Britannica
111 Fourth Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10003

Prentice-Hall
Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632

Putnam's, G. P., Sons
200 Madison Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10016

Random House
The College Department
201 East 50th Street
New York, N.Y. 10022

Reader's Digest Services
Educational Division
Pleasantville, N.Y. 10570

Science Research Associates
259 East Erie Street
Chicago, Illinois 60611

Scott Paper Company
c/o Modern Talking Picture
1212 Avenue of the Americas
New York, N.Y. 10036

Sears, Roebuck and Company
Publications Department
925 Homan Avenue
Chicago, Illinois 60607

Serina Press
70 Kennedy Street
Alexandria, Virginia 22305

Shoe String Press
995 Sherman Avenue
Hamden, Connecticut 06514

Simplicity Pattern Company
Education Department
200 Madison Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10016

Smith, Peter, Publisher
6 Lexington Avenue
Gloucester, Maryland 01930

Society for Visual Education
1345 Diversey Parkway
Chicago, Illinois 60614

South-Western Publishing Company
5101 Madison Road
Cincinnati, Ohio 45227

Springer Publishing Company
200 Park Avenue S
New York, N.Y. 10003

Stanford University Press
Stanford, California 94305

Sterling Educational Films
241 East 34th Street
New York, N.Y. 10016

Sutherland, John, Productions
401 North Wabash
Chicago, Illinois 60611

Teachers College Press
Bureau of Publications
Columbia University
1234 Amsterdam Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10027

Texas Tech University
Instructional Materials Center
Lubbock, Texas 79409

Thomas, Charles C., Publishers
301 - 327 East Lawrence Avenue
Springfield, Illinois 62703

3M Company
Visual Products Division
3M Center
St. Paul, Minnesota 55101

UC Extension Media Center
University of California Media Center
Berkeley, California 94720

United Hospital Fund of New York
Three East 54th Street
New York, N.Y. 10022

United States Government Printing Office
Division of Public Documents
Washington, D.C. 20402

United States National Audiovisual Center
National Archives and Records Service
Washington, D.C. 20409

University of Iowa
Department of Publications
Iowa City, Iowa 52240

University of North Carolina Press
Box 8006, University Station
Grand Forks, North Dakota 58202

University of Pittsburg Press
127 North Bellfield Avenue
Pittsburg, Pennsylvania 15213

University of Texas
Instructional Materials Laboratory
Austin, Texas 78712

Van Nostrand-Reinhold Company
450 West 33rd Street
New York, N.Y. 10001

Viking Press
625 Madison Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10038

Wadsworth Publishing Company
Belmont, California 94002

Watts, Franklin
Subsidiary of Grolier, Inc.
845 Third Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10022

Westinghouse Learning Corporation
2680 Hanover Street
Palo Alto, California 94304

Wiley, John, & Sons
605 Third Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10016

Williams & Wilkins Company
428 East Preston Street
Baltimore, Maryland 21202

Young America Films
c/o McGraw Hill Text Films
330 West 42nd Street
New York, N.Y. 10036

Appendix **B**

SUGGESTED EVALUATION QUESTIONS FOR PRE- AND POST-TESTS

Introduction

These tests are keyed to the Common Core guide of the Public Service Occupations curriculum.

The Common Core guide includes the following units:

Unit 1 — Oral Communications
Unit 2 — Written Communications
Unit 3 — Basic Report Writing
Unit 4 — Basic Record Keeping
Unit 5 — Good Grooming
Unit 6 — Relationships With Other People
Unit 7 — Interviewing Skills
Unit 8 — Applying For Public Service Jobs
Unit 9 — Techniques Of Decision Making

These tests were developed to help teachers:

(1) measure student learning gain.
(2) determine if the instructional objectives have been met.

Test Contents

Any evaluation of student learning should adhere closely to the intended outcomes expressed in the written objectives. Therefore, each test is based on the specific instructional objectives found in its corresponding unit in the Orientation guide. Every item of each test is directly associated with one of the objectives found in the guide for that unit.

These tests are structured to help determine whether the student has become competent or not in each unit. The items for each test relate only to the instructional objectives found at the beginning of that unit in the guide. No test items refer to material found in previous or later units. Consequently, each unit in the teacher's guide and its corresponding test can be used independently.

The evaluative approach used in these tests is not designed to measure the relative standing of each student to an actual or hypothetical population. Rather, it is designed to report a student's performance solely in terms of objectives mastered or not mastered. Each student can reach or exceed the minimum performance standard or criterion. Hence, this testing is called criterion referenced testing.

Directions

The tests have been prepared as master copies which may be duplicated for student distribution.

There is a separate test for each unit of instruction in the curriculum guide. For example, test number one can be used as a pretest and a post-test with the content in Common Core Services Unit 1 — Oral Communications.

Because each class is unique, instructors may add or delete any test items desired.

These tests have been given under nearly every conceivable condition, formal group testing, informal individual sessions, and "take home" tests. In so far as can be determined, satisfactory results were obtained under every condition.

In response to the demand for a system that is easy to use, a convenient answer key for each test has been included in this folder.

The tests provide an objective method for determining student learning gain, while freeing teachers to use valuable time for instruction.

Validity

The validity of any test must be determined in reference to the particular use for which the test is being considered. As these tests are essentially measures of student achievement, they must have content validity. Content validity involves the systematic examination of the test content to insure that it covers a representative sample of the behavior domain to be measured. By employing questions that directly relate to the instructional objectives in each unit, content validity is insured.

An experimental edition of this test was field tested in twelve schools, which were selected on the basis of size of school and community. Over 1,000 secondary school students were involved in the validation testing. Socio-economic groups taking the test ranged from the disadvantaged to upper middle-class. The schools were also selected to gain a student population from urban, suburban, and rural areas. In each of the schools, the teacher first gave the students a pretest before the content was introduced. The same testing instrument was used as a post-test. The objectives were to measure student learning which took place as a result of studying the material in the instructional unit, and to establish criterion referenced tests for use by schools throughout the country. For this purpose, a percentage passing of 70 percent or above on the post-test was considered to be an acceptable criterion mastery for that unit. No norms were established for these tests. It is suggested that each student be able to successfully pass 70 percent of the questions for each instructional unit that he is tested on. During this field test, suggestions for improving these tests were also made. The criterion referenced tests in this booklet are based on the pretest and post-test material used in this validation study.

Other Means of Evaluation

It should be remembered that the instructor can use a wide assortment of test situations to evaluate students.

Students can be rated on five-minute speeches which inform, instruct, persuade, motivate, or entertain.

Students can be grouped into pairs to simulate the interviewer and the interviewee. The interviewing sessions can pertain to employment, counseling, or job performance.

Instructors can tape record meetings and ask students to write the minutes of the meeting they have heard.

Students can be evaluated on their ability to write business letters, news releases, semi-formal, formal, and informal reports.

Each student can be given a group of papers to be filed alphabetically, numerically, by subject, location, or by the Dewey Decimal System.

The instructor may wish to determine interpersonal relationships by dividing the class into pairs and having each pair simulate the roles of superior and subordinate in a governmental agency.

An oral interview panel can be formed, with each student rated on their performance before the panel.

These methods can be used to complement the tests.

Acknowledgements

The Public Service Occupations tests were developed and field tested in twelve locations. While many people were involved in this project, the staff is particularly indebted to the following people:

Lillian Avery,	Test Research Center Los Angeles, CA
Victor Backstrom,	Long Beach Unified School District Long Beach, CA
Dr. William E. Burns,	State University of New York Buffalo, New York
William Crane,	San Diego Unified School District San Diego, CA
Thomas Franklin,	San Diego Unified School District San Diego, CA
Gilbert Garcia,	Sacramento City Unified School District Sacramento, CA
Lt. Charles Kane,	San Leandro Police Department San Leandro, CA
Dr. Nellie M. Love,	Sweet Home Central School District Amherst, New York
James B. Mayo,	Fremont Unified School District Fremont, CA
Myron Nadolski,	Grant Joint Union School District Sacramento, CA
Nadine L. Reed,	San Diego Unified School District San Diego, CA
James J. Reilley, S.J.,	Canisius High School Buffalo, New York
Rosalia Salinas,	San Diego Unified School District San Diego, CA
Paul E. Sugg,	Williamsville Central Schools Williamsville, New York
Tom Schrodt,	Orange Unified School District Orange, CA
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Preparing for Public Service Occupations

Evaluation Questions 1

Unit 1 Oral Communications

1. **Effective speakers have voices that:**
   - A. Have a pleasant pitch and volume ____
   - B. Lack variety of pitch ____
   - C. Have great volume ____
   - D. Have a very high pitch ____

2. **A competent speaker would:**
   - A. Look at the people in the front row ____
   - B. Look at the people in the back row ____
   - C. Look at all the people in the group ____
   - D. Look at the people in the middle of the group ____

3. **Looking at the audience is helpful to the speaker because:**
   - A. It helps the speaker watch for audience reaction ____
   - B. It helps the speaker watch for signs of misunderstanding ____
   - C. It enables the speaker to pick out signs of doubt ____
   - D. All of the above ____

4. **An effective speaker would:**
   - A. Look lively and sincere ____
   - B. Keep his face as blank as possible ____
   - C. Look overly composed; ____
   - D. Look disinterested about the subject ____

5. **Body language can indicate:**
   - A. Emphasis ____
   - B. Firmness of purpose ____
   - C. Indifference ____
   - D. All of the above ____

6. **These items would be included in a group of visual aids:**
   - A. Phonograph records and record player ____
   - B. Charts, graphs, and maps ____
   - C. Tape decks and cassettes ____
   - D. All of the above ____

7. **It is preferable for a speaker to use:**
   - A. Many abstract and general words ____
   - B. Precise words ____
   - C. Fancy words ____
   - D. Round-about expressions ____

8. As a speaker, you should:

A. Use your own language _____
B. Pattern your language after someone else _____
C. Imitate highly educated people _____
D. Use the occasion to try out big words you are learning _____

9. Accomplished speakers:

A. Deliver their speeches as fast as they can to economize time _____
B. Deliver their speeches at a very slow rate _____
C. Give very solemn speeches at a rapid rate _____
D. Vary the rate within the speech to achieve variety _____

10. An effective speaker would:

A. Speak rapidly without leaving any break between sentences _____
B. Fill up the spaces by saying "ah" _____
C. Pause occasionally _____
D. Use "you know" to fill in _____

11. A good technique in human relations is to:

A. Tell others they are wrong about everything _____
B. Point out the other person's faults _____
C. Admit your own mistakes _____
D. Attack others personally _____

12. The most sought after people are those who:

A. Tell others all about themselves _____
B. Are good listeners _____
C. Smile only when necessary _____
D. Let others know how they feel about every subject _____

13. For a person who has recently been hired, it is preferable to:

A. Be quick to show what others are doing wrong _____
B. Be suspicious of others until they prove themselves _____
C. Try to convince others to think as you do on every subject _____
D. None of the above _____

14. A good technique in human relations is to:

A. Ask the opinions of others _____
B. Help other people get what they want _____
C. Present your doubts in the form of a question _____
D. All of the above _____

Answer Key

1. A	4. A	7. B	10. C	13. D
2. C	5. D	8. A	11. C	14. D
3. D	6. B	9. D	12. B	

Unit 2 Written Communications

1. **Which type of letter would be correct for a public service worker to send:**
   - A. A letter containing erasures
   - B. A letter reflecting goodwill
   - C. A rude letter
   - D. An impersonal letter

2. **Memos usually leave out:**
   - A. Complimentary closings
   - B. The name of the sender
   - C. The name of the addressee
   - D. The date the memo was sent

3. **A good business letter would not contain:**
   - A. Short, simple words, sentences, and paragraphs
   - B. Information contained in the letter being answered
   - C. Concrete nouns and active verbs
   - D. Orderly placed paragraphs

4. **In writing business letters it is important to:**
   - A. Use a conversational tone
   - B. Use a hard, cold tone
   - C. Use abstract words
   - D. Use a passive tone

5. **Messages between departments in an agency are usually sent by:**
   - A. Letter
   - B. Memo
   - C. Telegram
   - D. Long reports

6. **Repetitive work can be simplified by the use of:**
   - A. Memos
   - B. Telegrams
   - C. Forms
   - D. Reports

7. **In filling out forms and applications, it is important to be:**
   - A. Legible
   - B. Complete
   - C. Accurate
   - D. All of the above

8. Memos should be:

A. Clear ____
B. Brief ____
C. Complete ____
D. All of the above ____

9. Minutes of meetings should not include:

A. The opinions of the recorder ____
B. The approval of previous minutes ____
C. The corrections of previous minutes ____
D. The voting members present ____

10. Reports are written by public service workers to:

A. Assemble information in one place ____
B. Aid the organization in making decisions ____
C. Inform the public and other agencies ____
D. All of the above ____

11. News releases should include:

A. A lead paragraph summarizing the story ____
B. Long paragraphs about many topics ____
C. The writer's opinion ____
D. All of the above ____

12. Readers of news releases and reports are influenced by the:

A. Content of the material ____
B. Accuracy of the material ____
C. Physical appearance of the material ____
D. All of the above ____

13. The contents of a report should not include:

A. A description of the problem ____
B. The questions to be answered ____
C. Unimportant information ____
D. A summary of findings ____

14. People tend to be influenced easier if:

A. They can see something in the position that would be advantageous to them ____
C. They are almost ready to agree anyhow ____
C. The appeal to the emotions is not overly strong ____
D. All of the above ____

Answer Key

1. B	4. A	7. D	10. D	13. C
2. A	5. B	8. D	11. A	14. D
3. B	6. C	9. A	12. D	

Unit 3 Basic Report Writing

1. **Public service workers are likely to write:**
   - A. Formal reports
   - B. Informal reports
   - C. Semi-formal reports
   - D. All of the above

2. **Which statement is untrue?**
   - A. A good report writer does not have to be exact about facts
   - B. A good report writer writes objectively and accurately about his observations
   - C. A good report writer uses visual aids where they will help put over the message
   - D. A good report writer gathers his material in an orderly way

3. **Police reports are important because:**
   - A. They help settle arguments
   - B. They help refresh the officer's memory
   - C. Financial settlements may be involved
   - D. All of the above

4. **Which statement is not true?**
   - A. A good paragraph contains materials arranged in random order
   - B. The length of the paragraph is suited to its importance
   - C. A good paragraph is mechanically correct — indented or set off
   - D. A good paragraph should make orderly, clear passage from one paragraph to another

5. **A good paragraph should:**
   - A. Include all minor details
   - B. Contain a topic sentence
   - C. Leave out the main ideas
   - D. Leave out the important details

6. **Inaccurate and incomplete reports can cause:**
   - A. Misunderstanding
   - B. Anger
   - C. Costly errors
   - D. All of the above

7. **Writers do not refer to dictionaries when they need to know:**
   - A. Correct spelling
   - B. How a word should be divided
   - C. Detailed information about a subject
   - D. Whether a hyphen should be used

8. Good report writers use:

A. Slang as much as possible
B. Words with unpleasant meanings
C. Phrases that rid the writer of responsibility
D. None of the above

9. When writing a report, it is best to use:

A. Phrases that are used over and over
B. Short, simple sentences
C. As many words as possible
D. An inactive tone

10. Which statement is incorrect?

A. A number which begins a sentence is written as a figure
B. Numbers under ten are usually written as words
C. Numbers requiring the use of more than one word are usually written as figures
D. Numbers which contain decimal fractions are always written as figures

11. Contractions are seldom used in:

A. Field reports
B. Semi-formal reports
C. Formal reports
D. Informal reports

12. Titles and the names of organizations are:

A. Never capitalized
B. Not capitalized in informal reports
C. Sometimes capitalized in formal reports
D. Always capitalized

13. After introductory clauses or phrases, one should use:

A. A period
B. A comma
C. A question mark
D. An exclamation mark

14. Between long, unrelated clauses that are connected with a conjunction, one should use:

A. A period
B. A question mark
C. A semi-colon
D. A colon

Answer Key

1. D	4. A	7. C	10. A	13. B
2. A	5. B	8. D	11. C	14. C
3. D	6. D	9. B	12. D	

Unit 4 Basic Record Keeping

1. Which one is not a basic reason for keeping records?
- A. To prove past actions
- B. To keep the staff working hard
- C. To obtain information for the present
- D. To help in planning for the future

2. Which statement is untrue?
- A. The filing system should be as simple as possible
- B. The filing system should be easily reached by those who use it
- C. Care should be taken that nothing is ever taken out of the filing system
- D. Care should be taken to keep the records storage area safe from fire and vandalism

3. If an agency has collected many papers on one topic or thing, it may use which filing system?
- A. A subject system
- B. A geographic system
- C. A numeric system
- D. The Dewey Decimal System

4. Which type of filing is the Dewey Decimal System based on?
- A. Alphabetical
- B. Subject
- C. Numeric
- D. All of the above

5. The first step in filing is to:
- A. Index the material
- B. Separate the materials from other office material
- C. Inspect them for completeness
- D. Determine which type of filing is best

6. Data processing by public service workers means:
- A. Gathering together unorganized bits of knowledge
- B. Classifying knowledge
- C. Recording knowledge in an organized manner
- D. All of the above

7. Which statement is untrue of punched tape data?
- A. It is not accurate and can not be produced quickly
- B. Data are recorded in the form of holes in a vertical column
- C. Data are recorded in vertical columns called channels
- D. Data are recorded continuously

8. Data recorded on magnetic tape are in the form of:

A. Holes punched in the middle of the tape _____
B. Holes punched on the edges of the tape _____
C. Invisible spots called bits _____
D. Holes punched in vertical columns _____

9. An edge-punched card has data punched:

A. Along one or both edges or across the ends _____
B. On tape _____
C. In the middle of the card _____
D. All of the above _____

10. Magnetic tape processing differs from card processing in that:

A. It is faster _____
B. The data can be erased _____
C. The tape can be reused _____
D. All of the above _____

11. Filing space can be saved by:

A. Putting the data on punched cards _____
B. Microfilming the records _____
C. Recording the data on magnetic tape _____
D. Putting the data on punched tape _____

12. Which statement is not true about computers?

A. A computer is much faster than punched card and punched tape processing _____
B. A computer can put data into storage and can get it when instructed to do so _____
C. A computer knows when wrong information is fed into it _____
D. A computer can do many operations without human beings and at high speed _____

13. Which statement is untrue of punched card data?

A. Each hole has a meaning, and groups of holes represent words _____
B. The data have to be copied over and over again by human beings _____
C. The results of processing can come out in printed material _____
D. The machine can read the holes in the cards and can follow directions _____

14. If you are looking for a misfiled record it would be wise to:

A. Look through the folder thoroughly _____
B. Check the "out" folders or substitution cards to see who had it last _____
C. Look in the "To Be Filed" or "Being Microfilmed" trays _____
D. All of the above _____

Answer Key

1. B	4. D	7. A	10. D	13. B
2. C	5. B	8. C	11. B	14. D
3. A	6. D	9. A	12. C	

Unit 5 Good Grooming

Public service managers realize that their workers will be dealing with the public. As workers are considered a part of the agency that hired them, their appearance reflects upon the agency that they represent.

Two top level jobs at the front desk are open. As public service manager, you must select two workers for these jobs.

All of the following people have the necessary skills and qualifications to advance, and all of them have expressed a desire to be promoted.

Which two workers would you select?

Mary misses many working days. She is a picky eater. She dates often and usually does not get to bed before 1:00 a.m. Mary's hair is dull and her skin is oily. Although Mary is well dressed, her posture is poor. Did you select Mary? Yes —— No——	
	John does not care to spend money on clothes because he believes in saving his money. He often wears clothes that are slightly soiled. His teeth are dirty and at times his breath has an unpleasant odor. John feels that these things are unimportant and that he should not change his appearance to please others. Did you select John? Yes —— No ——
Susan is a shy girl who feels she is poor at most things. Susan is very thin. Her choice of clothing is not flattering to her. Although she has good features, she feels she is unattractive. Did you select Susan? Yes —— No ——	

Jack belongs to a motorcycle club. His nails are dirty and he does not shave often. His shoulder-length hair is dirty and unkempt. As he does not believe in bathing, he has a strong body odor.

Jack wears tight black pants, a black leather jacket, and high heeled boots to work. Jack believes he should be free to dress as he wishes.
Did you select Jack? Yes —— No ——

Sam has many outside interests. He enjoys active sports and keeps his body in good shape. He believes in eating the right foods and getting the proper amounts of rest and exercise. Sam has excellent posture.
Did you select Sam? Yes —— No ——

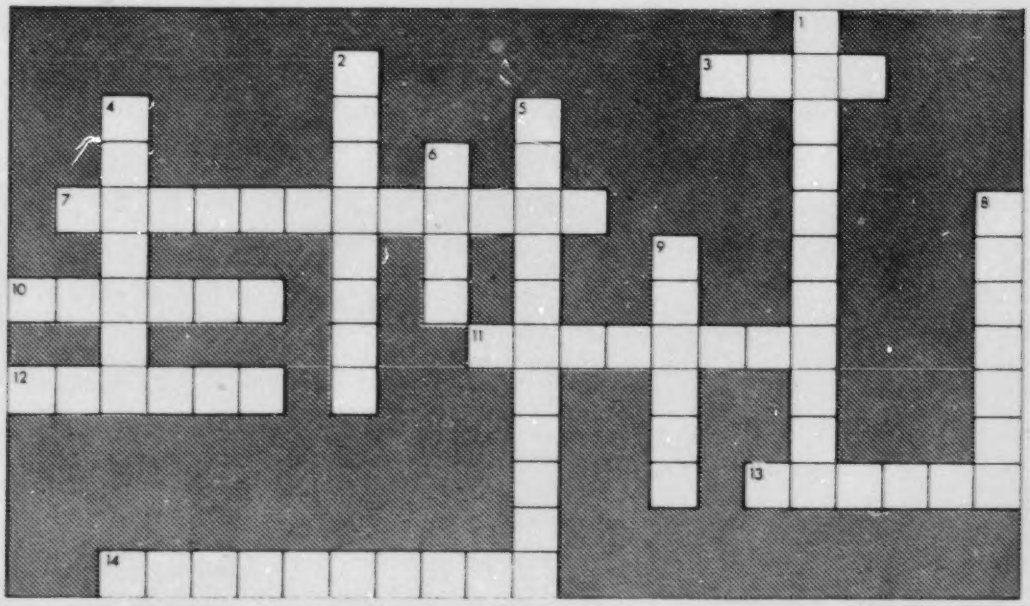
Sally is a single girl who is very concerned about her looks. Sally goes on dates after work so she wears plunging necklines, short tight dresses, and heavy jewelry. She has a very fancy hair style.
Did you select Sally? Yes —— No ——

Answer Key

Answers will vary on this test. The instructor may wish to have a discussion after the test, with students justifying their selections. Students may be evaluated on the soundness of their judgement.

Unit 6 Relationships with Other People

Fill in the crossword puzzle below.



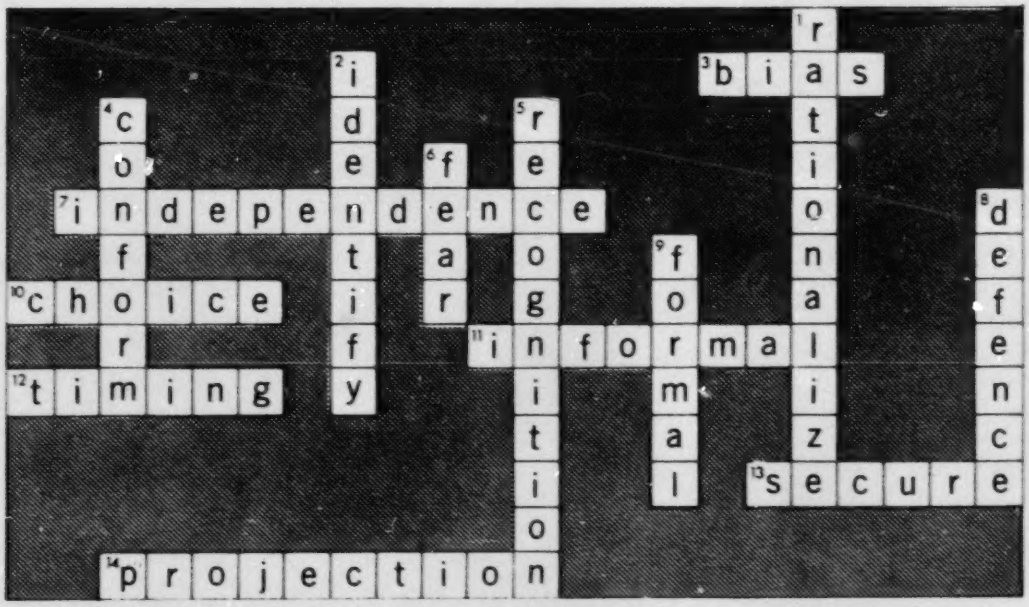
ACROSS:

3. A strong prejudice or _____ can block good relationships.
7. Being able to do what one wants to do satisfies the need for _____ .
10. One's _____ of words should be correct for the occasion.
11. Friends usually have an _____ relationship.
12. In talking over problems with others, _____ is important.
13. Everyone needs to feel _____ .
14. _____ is assigning one's traits to others.

DOWN:

1. We _____ when we try to make our actions seem logical.
2. When we assume someone's qualities as our own, we _____ with that person.
4. Individuals _____ when they do what is socially proper.
5. When we attract favorable attention, we gain _____ .
6. Some people have a strong _____ of failure.
8. _____ mechanics help to protect a person from anxiety.
9. A public service worker usually has a _____ relationship with the public.

Answer Key


1 r
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6 f
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i
7 i n d e p e n d e n c e
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14 p r o j e c t i o n

Unit 7 Interviewing Skills

1. **The purpose of an interview could be:**
   - A. To obtain information
   - B. To give information
   - C. To evaluate a person's background
   - D. All of the above

2. **The first job of the interview is to:**
   - A. Get to the subject quickly
   - B. Put the applicant at ease
   - C. Tell the applicant about the boss
   - D. Tell the applicant about the job that is open

3. **A skillful interview will:**
   - A. Watch the applicant's body language
   - B. Listen to the applicant
   - C. Ask questions to get information
   - D. All of the above

4. **Questions that are very specific and can be answered "yes" or "no" are called:**
   - A. Directive
   - B. Non-directive
   - C. Indirective
   - D. None of the above

5. **If the applicant cannot be hired, the interview should:**
   - A. Avoid telling the applicant
   - B. Tell the applicant as bluntly as possible
   - C. Tell the applicant tactfully
   - D. Give the applicant another chance

6. **Taking notes during an interview can:**
   - A. Help the interviewer remember the main points
   - B. Be distracting to the interviewee
   - C. Make the interviewee reluctant to talk
   - D. All of the above

7. **An interviewer with personal likes and dislikes should:**
   - A. Try to control them in order to be flexible
   - B. Try to find people with the same likes and dislikes
   - C. Try to get rid of all personal likes and dislikes
   - D. None of the above

8. The telephone is an effective way of finding out information because

A. Doubts can be picked up from a person's voice
B. The person called can talk freely
C. It doesn't take much time
D. All of the above

9. Interviewers should:

A. Reach conclusions about the applicant as soon as possible
B. Keep applicants on the track by asking directive questions
C. Let applicants talk on any subject that is comfortable to them
D. Help the applicant with words when the applicant is unable to think

10. Shy applicants may talk more if the interviewer:

A. Looks bored
B. Asks open-ended questions
C. Asks directive questions
D. Does most of the talking

11. Interviewers should:

A. Talk down to the applicant
B. Make sure they dominate the interview
C. Listen as well as talk
D. Guide the applicant's words

12. After interviews, interviewers should ask themselves:

A. What was learned about the applicant
B. What was not learned
C. What problems came up and if they were solved
D. All of the above

13. Which one is not a reason for asking for personal references:

A. To find out information about the applicant's family
B. To find out what people who know the applicant think of the applicant's work
C. To find out if the information on the application is true
D. To get more information

14. Letters of reference may be:

A. Incomplete
B. Vague
C. Dishonest
D. All of the above

15. Information told in confidence should:

A. Not be kept from all office personnel
B. Not be told to anyone
C. Be told to those who need-to-know
D. None of the above

Answer Key

1. D	4. A	7. A	10. B	13. A
2. B	5. C	8. D	11. C	14. D
3. D	6. D	9. B	12. D	15. C

Unit 8 Applying for Public–Service Jobs

1. **People are chosen under the civil service system on the basis of:**
   A. Interest
   B. Ability
   C. Personal friendship
   D. All of the above
2. **A good way to find out one's ability is to take:**
   A. An occupational preference test
   B. An interest inventory
   C. An aptitude test
   D. None of the above
3. **The best procedure to get a job would be to:**
   A. Find out what positions are open, find out more about the positions, then find out your abilities and interests
   B. Apply for a lot of jobs, find out what positions are open, find out about the positions, discover your interests and abilities
   C. Discover your interests and abilities; select your occupational group, then find out about possible positions
   D. Select your occupational group; apply for many jobs, find out what positions are open
4. **After selecting an occupational group, one should:**
   A. Select a specialty
   B. Find out about job vacancies
   C. Get more information about the position
   D. All of the above
5. **Persons having high school training may apply for:**
   A. Entry level positions such as clerical aide
   B. Manager positions
   C. Professional occupations
   D. None of the above
6. **Information about job opportunities can be found at:**
   A. The Federal Job Information Centers
   B. City Personnel Offices
   C. The Post Offices
   D. All of the above
7. **These persons are not eligible for civil service jobs:**
   A. People between the ages of 18-65 years of age
   B. People who are not citizens of the United States and do not wish to become citizens
   C. Handicapped people who can perform work efficiently without being a hazard
   D. People who are physically able to perform the work required

8. **Which statement is untrue?**
   A. It is not necessary to put information on applications that can be found on other applications on file
   B. Work history should include the name and address of each employer and the reason for leaving each job
   C. Work history should include a brief description of the work performed on each job
   D. Applicants should list courses taken, dates they were completed, and diplomas earned

9. **Persons who are eligible for most civil service jobs are:**
   A. People over 65 years of age
   B. Eighteen-year-old high school graduates
   C. Sixteen-year-olds who have dropped out of high school one month ago
   D. All of the above

10. **In preparing for examinations, applicants should:**
   A. Study for the examination
   B. Locate the place of the examination
   C. Leave unnecessary things at home
   D. All of the above

11. **On civil service examinations, applicants should not:**
   A. Listen carefully to the instructions
   B. Leave questions unanswered
   C. Follow directions
   D. Ask the administrator anything

12. **Which statement about oral interviews is untrue?**
   A. Panel members rate applicants on their behavior and grooming
   B. Panel members ask questions about the applicant's work experience and background
   C. It is not necessary to pass the oral interview if the other parts of the examination have been passed
   D. Applicants should think through how they will present their qualifications so their presentations will be good

13. **Which statement about eligible people for civil service jobs is untrue?**
   A. Papers are graded with the person's name on the paper, then matched to a number
   B. The eligible list is made up of people who have passed the written and/or the oral exam
   C. Papers are graded with a person's number on the paper, then matched to the person's name
   D. The names are placed in order by the grades received and a list is made in that order

Answer Key

1. B	4. D	7. B	10. D	13. A
2. C	5. A	8. A	11. B	
3. C	6. D	9. B	12. C	

Unit 9 Techniques of Decision Making

Read the problem carefully, and answer each of the following questions.

You are a library assistant. Mrs. Smith, the librarian, has two high school aides, Susan and Mary. Mrs. Smith has told you that she may fire Susan if her attitude does not improve. She complained about Susan's laziness and stated that Susan's work was never finished. Mrs. Smith asked you to talk to Susan about improving her attitude. When you tried to talk to Susan about this, she got upset and went home.

After observing the aides' workload for a few days, you notice that Susan has much more work than Mary.

1. What is the problem? _____

2. Name one solution. _____

3. What are the consequences of this solution? _____

4. List another solution. _____

5. What are the consequences of this solution? _____

6. Which do you think is the best solution? _____

Read the problem carefully, and answer each of the following questions.

You are in charge of the recreation program at the community center. Your job is to keep activities running smoothly. On the daily schedule, one-half hour has been set aside for basketball. While you have stepped out for a moment, ten of the Green Hornets and ten of the Purple Dragons arrived to play basketball. As each group has two teams set up, neither group would give in. Unfortunately, a fight began. The fight ended just as you returned. Each group plans to play tomorrow. You must make a decision.

1. What is the problem? _____

2. Name one solution. _____

3. What are the consequences of this solution? _____

4. List another solution. _____

5. What are the consequences of this solution? _____

6. Which do you think is the best solution? _____

Answer Key

Answers will vary on this test. The instructor may wish to have a discussion after the test, with students justifying their selections. Students may be evaluated on the soundness of their judgement.

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GPO 693-477/273